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ANNUAL MEETING OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The thirty-sixth annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was held at the Stevens Hotel, Chicago, March 17–20, 1931. The meeting was attended by an unusually large group of school executives, high-school inspectors, and teachers representing secondary schools and higher institutions located throughout the twenty states included in the North Central Association.

The widespread interest which is being taken in the North Central Association is indicated not only by the large attendance but by the unusually large number of representative men and women from the high schools, colleges, universities, and state departments of public instruction who took active part in the work of all three commissions.

The programs of the commissions and the program of the general Association were very attractive, and every meeting was well attended. There was a general feeling that the educational programs provided by the Association at the time of the meeting were very much worth while. The addresses of many of the speakers who appeared on the program will be published in the *North Central Association Quarterly*.

The attendance at the annual banquet was approximately 380, exceeding last year's attendance by 100. The Association banquet is one of the most delightful and attractive features of the annual meeting. The program consisted of brief addresses and greetings given by the fraternal delegates from other regional standardizing agencies; the presidential address given by Merle Prunty, superintendent of schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma; and an address given by President Robert M. Hutchins, of the University of Chicago. Harry D. Campbell, dean of Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Virginia, represented the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. Howard Conant, principal of the high school in Holyoke, Massachusetts, represented the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Henry G. Doyle, dean of the Junior College of George Washington University, Washington, D.C., represented the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.

As a result of the interest in the meetings which in previous years has been shown by the newspapers, the Association this year engaged the services of a trained reporter, who was in charge of the organization of publicity material and its distribution to the representatives of the press.

The following officers were elected: President: J. B. Edmonson, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan. First vice-president: J. T. Giles, State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin. Second vice-president: G. W. Frasier, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado. Secretary: A. W. Clevenger, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. Treasurer: E. H. Kemper McComb, Manual Training High School, Indianapolis, Indiana. J. M. Wood, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, and C. H. Lake, first assistant superintendent of schools, Cleveland, Ohio, were elected members of the Executive Committee.

The Association will hold its next meeting at the Stevens Hotel, Chicago, March 15–18, 1932.

The Commission on Institutions of Higher Education.—The Board of Review of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education spent much time and gave careful consideration to the applications of colleges seeking approval. There were no appeals to the Executive

Committee from the adverse decisions of the Commission. The proceedings of the Commission and the complete list of accredited institutions of higher education for the year extending from March, 1931, to March, 1932, will be published in the *North Central Association Quarterly*.

The Commission re-elected the following officers for the ensuing year: Chairman: H. M. Gage, Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa. Vice-chairman: C. S. Boucher, University of Chicago. Secretary: George F. Zook, University of Akron, Akron, Ohio.

The Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula.—Reports of the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula in many fields have appeared in various issues of the *North Central Association Quarterly*. While many school officials and teachers have made use of the excellent material which has been published, it is hoped that an increasing number of teachers will avail themselves of this material to secure suggestions and helps in the fields in which they are engaged. The executive and editorial office of the *North Central Association Quarterly* is located at 4012 University High School Building, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

The reports printed in the March, 1931, issue of the *North Central Association Quarterly*, which were submitted by subcommittees of the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula, were commonly accepted by the Commission at Chicago as the most significant developments in course-of-study writing produced by the Commission to date. They represent a combination of scholarly attack with experimental use in between fifty and sixty North Central Association schools. The material is not, therefore, a theoretical treatment of the subject but represents a demonstrated method of teaching the material stated in the reports themselves. A discussion by Dean Stout on the "Reorganization of the Curricula on the Basis of the Objectives Set Up by the North Central Association" and a paper by H. H. Ryan on "What Should Be the Policy Governing the Future Activities of the Commission?" resulted in the projection of a threefold plan of activities for the coming year. The first field of work is to be a continuation of the studies now under way in the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary-School Curricula. A second proposal was that a more direct attack be made on

the problem of reorganization of the curriculum in at least one of the fields represented by the four objectives of secondary education which have been adopted by the North Central Association. The third proposal grew out of Mr. Ryan's paper and suggested the use of experimental materials in fifteen or twenty North Central Association schools for the purpose of demonstrating that pupils can be as well prepared for college through the use of units developed on the basis of our four objectives as through units developed in terms of present subject-matter organization and emphasis. That such a proposal has some chance of success was indicated by H. R. Douglass' paper on the "Relation of Units Done in High-School Subject Fields to College Marks," which will appear in a coming issue of the *North Central Association Quarterly*. The Commission feels that the time has come for a more aggressive attack by the Association on the problem of curriculum reorganization with a wider departure from traditional subject-matter emphasis.

The following officers were re-elected for the ensuing year: Chairman: Thomas M. Deam, Joliet Township High School and Junior College, Joliet, Illinois. Secretary: Will French, associate superintendent of schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma.

The Commission on Secondary Schools.—The Commission on Secondary Schools passed on reports from approximately 2,500 secondary schools and recommended 2,415 for approval by the Association. Of this number, 105 are new schools. Only 191 schools were warned for a violation of standards as compared with 282 that were warned last year. The statistical report of the secretary of the Commission, based on 2,310 of the 2,336 schools accredited during the past year, revealed the following facts: (1) total enrolment in the high schools approved by the North Central Association, 1,048,395; (2) average enrolment, 453; (3) number of new teachers employed, 8,772; (4) total number of teachers employed, 48,033; (5) types of organization represented: traditional four-year schools, 1,658; three-year senior high schools, 296; six-year junior senior high schools, 332. A decrease in the number of high schools organized on the traditional four-year basis and a relatively large increase in the number of high schools organized on the six-year, or junior-senior, basis is shown. The complete report indicating certain trends in the development of the

secondary schools belonging to the Association will be published in an issue of the *North Central Association Quarterly.*

E. E. Morley, principal of Heights High School, Cleveland Heights, Ohio, presented a report on the investigations conducted by the Committee on Athletics during the past year. As a result of the studies made by this committee during the past two years, the Commission voted to adopt a policy of extending its regulations, standards, and recommendations to include the field of interscholastic athletics. This report will also be published in the *North Central Association Quarterly.*

A committee of three members was appointed, with A. A. Reed, University of Nebraska, as chairman, to make a study of the extent to which colleges have in recent years modified entrance requirements in terms of the former recommendations of the Association regarding the admission of students on the basis of work completed in the senior high school.

A report was made by C. G. F. Franzén, University of Indiana, for the Committee on College Entrance Blanks concerning the various records required by admission officers of higher institutions.

Two rather important changes were made in the standards for accrediting high schools. On account of the great difficulty experienced in the interpretation of Standard 7 C, this standard was changed to read as follows:

> All teachers of academic subjects in new schools and all new teachers of academic subjects in accredited schools must teach only in those fields in which they have made adequate preparation.
>
> The following criteria are set forth as indicating desirable minima by which a state committee shall be guided:
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> |---|---|
> | English | 15 semester hours |
> | Foreign languages | 15 semester hours in the language taught |
> | Science | 15 semester hours, of which 5 should be in the science taught |
> | Mathematics | 15 semester hours |
> | Social studies | 15 semester hours which must include preparation in specific subjects taught |
>
> Deduction in the fields of foreign language and mathematics may be allowed to the extent of two semester hours for each unit earned in high school not to exceed a total deduction of six semester hours.

Another standard was added this year. This is Standard 10, which reads as follows:

> No accredited school shall participate in any national or interstate athletic meet or tournament or in any invitational athletic tournament or meet not sponsored by the State Athletic Association. Accredited schools not eligible to membership in the State Athletic Association are excepted.

The following officers of the Commission were re-elected for the ensuing year: Chairman: L. N. McWhorter, assistant superintendent of schools, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Secretary: H. G. Hotz, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas.

Perhaps more emphasis than ever before was placed on the fact that membership in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is purely voluntary and that the accrediting of both secondary schools and higher institutions by the Association is a co-operative undertaking.

A. W. CLEVENGER, *Secretary*

INADEQUATE LIBRARY FACILITIES FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Two recent sources of information emphasize once more the typical, deplorable inadequacy of library facilities in secondary schools. The school situations represented in these instances are far apart, not only in distance, but with respect to the sizes of the communities served by the schools. One of these situations is in North Dakota with a population predominantly rural, and the other is in our largest city.

The information concerning high-school libraries in North Dakota has been made available by Robert D. Cole, of the University of North Dakota. His report is published in the bulletin of *Proceedings of the Fifteenth Annual Meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, after having been presented at the February sessions of the department in Detroit. The following illustrative excerpts are quoted from the full report.

> To understand library and educational conditions in a state like North Dakota, its excessive rurality and, hence, poverty must be kept in mind. It is extremely probable that the meager salaries already paid as well as school appropriations in general will be cut in several of our counties which were stricken by drought last summer. With us prosperity and progress depend almost

wholly upon the price of wheat. We rank second among the states in the percentage of our population which lives in towns of under 2,500. Seven-eighths of our people are rural in life-interests. Only three cities in the state have over 10,000 population, none over 30,000. Eighteen other communities have populations between 2,500 and 10,000. Yet the state contains nearly 71,000 square miles.

This excessive rurality and dependence upon one crop naturally affects adversely our school and library situation. We find it extremely difficult, in fact impossible under existing legislation, to equalize educational and cultural opportunity. We are a state of extremely small high schools. Twenty-one per cent of our classified high schools enrol less than 50 pupils; 43 per cent, between 50 and 99 pupils; and 30 per cent, between 100 and 249 pupils. Only 6 per cent of our schools have more than 250 students. . . . .

The state does, however, make a substantial effort to support its schools. It ranked eighth among the states of the country in 1928 with respect to its per capita support of public elementary and secondary education, and second in the percentage of income spent for public schools. In spite of the difficulties in providing educational advantages, the percentage of illiteracy is only 2.1 as compared with the national figure of 6. . . . .

Our state department of education is actively promoting the cause of adequate high-school libraries. It requires for accreditation that high schools enrolling less than 100 students must have at least ten books for each student enrolled. Schools having an enrolment of between 100 and 200 pupils must have at least a thousand volumes, and schools enrolling between 200 and 500 pupils, at least 1,500 volumes. Each high-school study hall must have at least one unabridged dictionary, and there must be an up-to-date abridged dictionary for each eight pupils, and a set of standard up-to-date encyclopedias, consisting of ten or more volumes, for each forty pupils in the high school. Until these standards are reached, schools are expected to spend at least $1.25 a pupil for books per year, and every school is urged to spend a minimum of $15.00 a year for magazines. Suggested lists of books and magazines are furnished by the department. . . . .

The report of our high-school inspector for 1928 showed that only 12 per cent of the schools had libraries in excess of 2,000 volumes, 30 per cent had between 1,000 and 2,000 books, and 58 per cent less than 1,000. This latter figure includes 14 per cent that had libraries containing less than 500 volumes. These figures roughly conform to the percentages of enrolment. The average number of volumes per pupil was 9.6.

Superficially the showing is not bad. But, to quote the high-school inspector, included in the number of books reported "are still many worthless volumes." From personal observation, the writer would consider this statement to mean out-of-date sets of encyclopedias; gift sets of books and bound magazines, valueless to donor and worse than valueless to schools; free state and national reports, filling up space but good for almost no other purpose, and aged textbooks. . . . .

At first glance the recommendation for a separate library room is well carried out in North Dakota. The high-school inspector's last report lists 77 per cent of the schools as having a separate library room, and 16 per cent as having the library in the study hall. Three per cent use both. In the remaining schools the city libraries are used, or the library is located in classrooms, alcoves, or offices.

An examination of the questionnaires, however, presents a slightly different picture. Some of these separate rooms are merely stockrooms or storage-rooms for books with no seats. In twenty-six cases the library is reported as being in the superintendent's or principal's office, where of course other school business is transacted. In fourteen cases it is in the assembly room or study hall, which in many cases means one and the same thing. . . . .

More detailed information concerning the qualifications of librarians was obtained from the teachers themselves. Of fifty-three answering, 30 per cent had had no previous [library] training, and 26 per cent no previous [library] experience. Fifty per cent had had college courses of one sort or another in library methods, and 74 per cent had had previous experience either as librarians in schools or as assistants in public or college libraries. Only three of the fifty-three had ever attended a library school. About one-half of those reporting training in college are known to have had but one course which meets one hour a week for one semester. Obviously the training of these girls is pitifully meager and far from meeting the standards set up as attainable in the Miller Report. . . . .

Mention has been made of the heavy schedules of teacher-librarians. The actual data are at hand. There are four all-time librarians employed, naturally enough, in the large schools. Teaching schedules from fifty-two teacher-librarians were secured. Two taught seven periods a day; sixteen taught six; seventeen, five; sixteen, four; and one, three. Thirty-eight of the fifty-two had duties other than library work or teaching. It is interesting to note that thirty-five taught English, usually as a major subject. Of the others, ten had a social science in their schedule. . . . .

To sum up, then, the status of high-school libraries in North Dakota. If, as has been said, the two legs upon which our democracy stands are the public schools and the libraries, the body politic in North Dakota is seriously crippled in the library leg. Due to the rurality of the state, the schools are small, the housing facilities for libraries inadequate; the number of books is scanty, and the selection poor. Librarians are very poorly trained and so burdened with teaching and other duties that they have little time or energy for library work. Possibilities in the use of pupil librarians are overlooked. Teacher-training institutions have not made adequate training possible. It is impossible in most cases to co-operate with public libraries because they are so few. There are few attempts made to teach the proper use of the library.

The information concerning the situation in New York City is provided by the *New York Sun*, which in a recent issue draws on the report of a special library committee of the local high-school teach-

ers' association. This report calls attention to the low ranking of New York, when compared with other large cities, in expenditures for public libraries made per capita. It refers also to the small total outlays for school libraries. Says the New York Sun:

> With six hundred schools and a million pupils, the New York City Board of Education receives $87,000 for school libraries, while California provides $1.00 a pupil for them, according to the report. The high schools of New York, it is charged, receive $18,000 for books and $3,500 for magazines; the elementary schools, $57,400 for both books and magazines; the junior high schools, $11,000 for books and $700 for magazines.

The situations in these widely separated areas are, regrettably, not unusual. They give proof that there is still much to be done in establishing the library as a vital educative force in the secondary school.

APPRAISING FILMS FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

The *Educational Screen* continues to publish its monthly list of "film estimates." These are reported as "the combined judgments of a national committee on current theatrical films." For instance, in the March issue there are appraisals of thirty-two contemporary releases. Accompanying the title of each film is a brief paragraph giving the producers, the names of the chief actors, and a concise description and evaluation. Examples of statements in these paragraphs are the following.

> Strong human appeal, sweep and vigor of action, and high historical value. Falls short of its highest possibilities because subject matter is finer than the acting, and dramatic sequence is too often broken.

> A crude and unwholesome production with nothing to redeem it.

> Beautiful scenery and photography. Intensely interesting and thrilling, genuine and convincing, high in both educational and entertainment value.

> So far-fetched and unconvincing as to be more or less silly and ridiculous.

> Distorts all ideas of honesty, marriage, and normal living.

Each film is also evaluated for three age levels, that is, "for intelligent adults," "for youth (fifteen to twenty)," and "for children (under fifteen)." In this instance appraisal is accomplished by a single word or phrase for each age level. Thus, the film referred to

in the first quotation already given is characterized as "excellent" for intelligent adults, "excellent" for youth, and "exciting but good" for children. Another is labeled "trash" for adults, "by no means" for youth, and "no" for children. Still others are designated by the following sequences of appraisals for the three groups: "depends on taste," "funny but cheap," "doubtful"; "excellent," "excellent," "good"; "hardly," "pernicious," "no"; and "interesting," "excellent," "fine unless too exciting."

Probably no appraisal can be made universally acceptable, especially as standards in aesthetics and morals are various and subjective. Nevertheless, those to whom it falls to guide young people will appreciate advice of this sort, and they will have some confidence in the favorable criticisms because certain of the appraisals are unhesitatingly condemnatory.

ORIENTATING TEACHERS IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Administrators of junior high schools are often confronted with the responsibility of developing in a staff recruited from diverse sources a common knowledge and appreciation of the nature and practices of reorganized schools. In discussing this problem, Charles E. Neville, principal of the Harding Junior High School in Philadelphia, has referred to the fact that his staff of seventy-eight teachers have been drawn from four main sources: (1) teachers transferred from other junior high schools, who experience little or no difficulty in adjusting themselves to the new situation; (2) teachers promoted from elementary-school positions, many of whom experience considerable difficulty in adjusting themselves to pupil participation in government, freer school control, exploratory courses, home-room duties, and guidance and club programs; (3) teachers from senior high schools within or without the city, who are unaccustomed to the greater flexibility of the junior high school régime; and (4) those who come without experience directly to the junior high school after graduation from college. Mr. Neville has undertaken to describe the procedure followed in his school in adjusting teachers with such heterogeneous backgrounds to their new task, a procedure which relies largely on professional teachers' meetings extending over a school year. We are privileged to quote at length the description of this plan.

There are two general faculty meetings each month, each lasting not less than forty-five minutes or more than one hour. One of these is given over to discussion of current routine problems, announcements, and communications from the superintendent or his associates. The other meeting is devoted to professional topics. This plan gives ten professional meetings during the school year.

The topic of school records and reports, involving all the routine clerical work of a large school, was handled during the routine discussions. Various members of the faculty who are chairmen of important standing committees presented statements of the work of their groups. For example, at the first meeting of the year, the chairman of the roster committee, which not only makes the roster but has charge of all forms dealing with organization, gave a talk on the necessary record cards, attendance sheets, pupil reports, etc., describing the method of using each form and exhibiting samples properly filled in. This talk was followed by a discussion and questions. At another routine meeting the school counselor, who, among other duties, has charge of the issuing of applications for employment certificates, described the various steps in the securing of these applications, told the teachers what credentials the applicant must have—proof of age, parental consent, and promise of employment—and distributed mimeographed outlines of the process of going to work to be used by each home-room teacher for the information of herself and her group.

The professional meetings for the year centered around the general topic of pupil adjustment. This general topic was divided into several parts, to some of which only one meeting was given, while some required several meetings for discussion. These topics were as follows: student government, one meeting; school clubs, two meetings; school citizenship, two meetings; supervised study, two meetings; counselor's work, one meeting; and home-room guidance, two meetings.

In the meeting in which student government was taken up, the principal opened the discussion by a brief statement of the aims and purposes of student participation in school control in a junior high school, giving also several reading references on this topic. His statement was followed by one from the sponsor of the student-government organization in the school, who explained the different officers to be elected by the students, their qualifications and duties, and the part the teachers ought to take in their selection and functioning. The rest of the meeting was given over to questions and discussion on the whole matter of student government.

The first of the two meetings on clubs was opened by the principal with a brief statement of the educational values to be expected from clubs; a request that teachers, before suggesting clubs, carefully consider their suggestion in relation to these values; and the suggestion of reading references in the literature of school clubs. The chairman of the club committee then distributed copies of two mimeographed forms. He asked teachers to indicate on one form the clubs they would like to sponsor and to have the pupils in their home-room groups indicate on the other form the types of clubs they would prefer. These forms

were to be returned to the chairman within a week. A discussion of the whole club situation in the school followed the distribution of the forms, which was very helpful in the subsequent reorganization of these activities. The second meeting on clubs followed the tabulation by the club committee of the teachers' and pupils' suggestions. At this meeting the results of the study were presented and discussed, and the assignments of teachers as sponsors of various clubs were made.

The first of the meetings on school citizenship was opened in the usual way by a statement from the principal as to the meaning of school citizenship and the definition of a good school citizen. He then referred to a recent book in which types of school offenses were graded by a group of teachers. Many teachers took part in the following discussion, and the resultant clarifying of ideas as to the relative importance of school offenses was very valuable. It was decided to devote another meeting to this topic, and a committee of five teachers was appointed to co-operate with the principal in making an outline to crystallize the group's ideas and ideals of school citizenship before this subsequent meeting. The outline which was prepared will not be given here.

The first meeting on supervised study was more nearly a lecture meeting than were the other meetings. The principal did most of the talking, outlining the purposes of supervised-study periods, discussing the type and method of assignments for pupil preparation, and ending with a request that the supervised-study periods in the lower grades, seventh and eighth, be used to teach pupils how to study. He felt that the old-fashioned study-hall method was a waste of time for such immature pupils and that most of them knew little about how to prepare assignments. At the end of this meeting a committee of subject-group chairmen was appointed, at the request of the faculty, to prepare an outline of lessons to be used in teaching pupils to study. This outline was prepared and presented at the second meeting on supervised study. It was discussed and adopted by the faculty and is now in use in all the supervised-study periods in the seventh and eighth grades. The outline contains a statement of environmental conditions suitable for study; the general steps necessary in the preparation of any lesson; and a series of plans, prepared in each case by the chairman of the appropriate subject group, giving detailed instructions for the preparation of assignments in mathematics, science, history, foreign language, and English. In English two phases of the work were outlined, namely, the book review and the different types of composition.

The meeting in which the work of the counselor was the topic was entirely different from the other meetings. The principal merely acted as temporary chairman. He turned the meeting over at once to the school counselor, who briefly outlined her work, emphasizing the great need of faculty co-operation and stressing the close relation between her task and that of the home-room teachers. She then introduced the assistant director of a social-service organization which specializes in guidance and in training people for school counseling. This speaker's address and the discussion which followed it occupied the rest of the meeting.

The two meetings on home-room guidance were similar in organization to those on supervised study. At the first meeting the principal described the qualities necessary for a successful home-room teacher, or adviser, and the duties assigned to such a teacher. He discussed the two types of guidance expected of the home-room period, group guidance and individual guidance, and showed how the group phase could be related to the seven cardinal principles of secondary education. Finally, a committee was appointed to prepare an outline of suitable topics and material for home-room group guidance. This outline was prepared, and the second meeting was devoted to its presentation, discussion, and revision. The suggestions it contained are now in use in the home-room periods.

While the central topic of all these meetings was pupil adjustment, the most important outcome of the program was the better adjustment of the teachers to their tasks. One measure of the success of the plan is the enthusiasm with which nearly every member of the faculty is undertaking what before were, to many of them, unknown and seemingly overwhelming pieces of work in fitting their pupils into the school program.

AN INVESTIGATION OF STATE SUPPORT OF HIGH SCHOOLS

The current economic depression and the coincident complications of problems of school support make more timely than ever the publication of studies in state support of educational programs. A recent investigation in this field is one by John Guy Fowlkes, of the University of Wisconsin, and Lee Francis Jones, of the State Teachers College in Bowling Green, Kentucky, the report of which has appeared as Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin Number 12 of the University of Wisconsin. Some notion of the nature of the investigation and its conclusions may be gained from the summary of a chapter entitled "A Plan of State Support for Public High Schools," the chief contributing chapter of the monograph.

1. The high-school districts of Wisconsin vary widely in size as measured by average daily attendance, the districts ranging from an A.D.A. of 16.2 in the smallest to an A.D.A. of approximately 12,000 in the largest. The median A.D.A. for all the high schools is 96.3, and the middle 50 per cent fall between 54.5 and 167.7.

2. The range of true valuations in groups of districts of approximately the same average daily attendance is very great, one district having a true valuation twenty-six times the true valuation of another district with the same educational need.

3. The correlation between valuation of districts and educational need as measured by number of pupils in A.D.A. is so low as to render distribution of state aid on the basis of valuation alone impracticable.

4. The recent detachment of territory from high-school districts has had a marked effect upon the ability of villages and smaller cities to support high schools, with the result that many high schools must be discontinued if state aid is not forthcoming.

5. It is apparent that, without equalization of high-school burdens, the practice of diverting funds intended for and needed in elementary schools, to high-school use will become increasingly prevalent.

6. The inequalities in the present system of financing high schools are very marked. The local tax rates necessary to provide such amounts as are not provided by tuition and state grants now in effect, range from two mills to twenty-two mills, with a median for the state of five and nine-tenths mills.

7. The range of tax rates in the high-school districts of Wisconsin when total expenditures minus debt service, capital outlay, and tuition are considered is from two mills to twenty mills.

8. The two measures furnishing the best indication of ability on the part of districts to support education are wealth back of each pupil in A.D.A. and wealth back of each teacher.

. . . . . .

10. The correlation between cost per teacher and valuation back of each teacher and the correlation between cost per pupil in A.D.A. and valuation back of each pupil are both so low that their use in regression equations to apportion state funds is inadvisable.

11. The median cost per high-school teacher (exclusive of capital outlay and debt service) in the state of Wisconsin for the school year 1928–29 was $2,132. Among the 370 schools having less than 301 in average daily attendance the corresponding figure for the same year was $2,101. The corresponding figure for the 55 schools having more than 300 in average daily attendance was $2,363.

12. The factors entering into the proposed equalization program are the median cost per high-school teacher for the two basic size groups of schools, a tax rate chosen on the basis of current expenses, when current expense minus tuition is used as the base for choosing this tax rate, the true valuation back of each teacher, and the pupil-teacher ratio used in defining a teacher for purposes of equalization.

13. The ratio of pupils to teachers is a better measure to use in determining the number of teachers to be credited to a district for equalization purposes than is the teacher-pupil ratio, since the latter is less easily computed and less easily understood by the public in general.

14. The formula which it is proposed to use in determining the amount of state aid is $A=NX-(RV+T)$, where A equals the state aid to be given to a local high-school district, N equals the number of teachers to be credited to district, to be determined by the state median pupil-teacher ratio for the size group to which the district belongs, X equals median state cost per high-school teacher for preceding year for the size group to which the district belongs (all costs exclu-

sive of capital outlay and debt service), R equals rate chosen for equalization purposes, V equals true valuation of district, and T equals tuition for non-resident high-school pupils.

15. In formulating a technique for state support of public high schools a base cost of $2,100 per teacher is recommended for schools having less than 301 in A.D.A. and a base cost of $2,400 per teacher for schools having more than 300 in A.D.A.

16. The number of teachers to be credited to each district is based on a pupil-teacher ratio of 18 for schools having an A.D.A. of 300 or less and on a pupil-teacher ratio of 21 for schools having an A.D.A. of more than 300.

17. A true tax rate of three mills is recommended as a base rate down to which the state should furnish money for local high-school purposes.

It is a deficiency of many proposals for state support that they are set up to maintain the schools in their present development rather than to foster a dynamic secondary-school situation. The present investigators indicate awareness of this shortcoming.

Unless great care is taken to avoid such a condition, it is very likely that a state program of local support will be one by means of which the state is attempting to catch up with existing local conditions rather than being one of the major factors in bringing local conditions up to a definitely adopted educational plan. The latter status seems to be highly desirable and can be attained only on the basis of exhaustive studies of the various factors involved in formulating a state educational program and long-term planning.

They go as far, at least, as to recommend the studies to be made to make good the lack. The further inquiries listed are critical studies of high-school curriculums in Wisconsin, high-school districting in the state, high-school tuition, capital outlay for high schools, transportation of high-school pupils, professional qualifications of high-school teachers, professional qualifications of supervisory and administrative officers, relation between size of school and pupil achievement, standards of size of high schools, and sources of school support. One is inclined to suggest the addition to the list of a study of junior high school reorganization.

THE "REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH"

The first issue of the first journal to attempt a systematic review of educational research has just appeared. The *Review of Educational Research* is the official organ of the American Educational

Research Association, which is now a department of the National Education Association.

The first issue deals with the curriculum. It was prepared by a committee consisting of Henry Harap, William L. Connor, and Ralph W. Tyler, assisted by several other persons. This issue includes an extensive classified bibliography and reports studies of methods of curriculum-making; studies of the objectives of the curriculum; studies of learning which bear on the curriculum, time allotment and grade placement; and others. Four other issues, dealing with teacher personnel, school organization, special methods up to the end of the elementary school, and individual differences and psychological tests, are scheduled to appear during the year. The whole field of research has been divided into fifteen topics, which will be covered in three years. Three numbers will appear during the spring and two during the autumn.

Subscriptions to the *Review of Educational Research* may be sent to the American Educational Research Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. The subscription rate is $4.00 a year. Single numbers may be purchased at $1.00 a copy. Special rates are provided for quantity orders.

EDUCATION IN THE YEAR 2031

MEMBERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
University of Chicago

The corner stone of the new Graduate Education Building now under construction at the University of Chicago was laid with appropriate ceremonies January 15, 1931. Shortly prior to the event members of the Department of Education were invited to prepare prophecies of the status of education at the end of another hundred years, which were to be placed in the corner stone. Manuscripts of the prophecies were restricted to a single page. Even though most members of the Department may have been reluctant to prepare such prophecies and may be judged from statements in the prophecies themselves to be very doubtful of their reliability, many readers of the *School Review* will be interested in the predictions and will be glad to have them made available for perusal and speculation. They are reproduced in full in the following pages without identification of authorship. At the time of preparing the prophecies there was no intent to publish them in this way.

Careful comparative reading of the prophecies discloses considerable recurrence of similar elements. One of the predictions most frequently emerging pertains to the status of the science of education. One writer goes so far as to anticipate that in a hundred years scientific knowledge regarding education will supplant entirely appeal to personal authority. This type of prediction is often associated with one relating to a concurrent development of a science of society or of human nature. Other elements of frequent recurrence refer to the extension of opportunities of universal education, adult education, the curriculum, individualization, and school organization. Popularization of education will be carried to higher age levels, and the recent movement for continuous education through adulthood will have moved toward universalization. The curriculum will have been modified in a number of ways, including more attention to cultural and non-vocational phases on levels below the professions.

The organization of schools promises to include three levels: an elementary period (certain prophecies also mentioning nursery-school developments), a secondary period that will extend to the end of general education and displace the four-year college, and the university proper. Among elements recurrently but less frequently mentioned than those listed are improved procedures in teaching (refined through experimentation), programs of guidance, and improved articulation of the system of schools. A number of predictions are mentioned once or twice only, among them several of a non-educational character, such as progress toward a universal language, the disappearance of common labor, and the displacement of the state as a governmental unit.

A generalization warranted by scrutiny of the prophecies is that most of them—as might be expected—are projected from recent developments in education and society. Relatively few of the elements are purely speculative, unsubstantiated by present trends.

PROPHECY 1

Long before a century has passed, all boards of education will be abolished, and the conduct of schools will be in the hands of trained and trusted experts.

The long summer vacation, which now breaks the continuity of the education of pupils, will be discontinued, and wholesome conditions for the physical and mental development of pupils will be provided throughout the year.

The industrial system of the world will be reorganized in such a way as to put an end to all exploitation of human beings, and the methods of training for vocations will be so improved that there will be complete co-ordination of education and occupational activities.

Ample provision will be made for the scientific study of human nature and of social institutions, and the science of education will have progressed to the point where it can give proper direction to all educational activities.

Elementary schools, secondary schools, and colleges will become intelligent about their relations to one another and about the relation of the education of young people to adult life so that the present inco-ordinations between these divisions of the educational system and between the educational and social systems will be corrected.

The present typical American method of teaching subjects by the use of highly condensed textbooks will give place to far better methods of teaching—to teaching through the use of libraries, pictures, television, and direct observation.

A well-developed system of adult education will supplement the training given to young people.

Teaching will be an expert profession, open only to persons who are well trained, and, as a result, it will be a highly respected profession.

PROPHECY 2

If our human stock biologically maintains its present level, the following discernible trends in present-day education will probably move forward to their logical conclusions.

1. Education will increasingly aim at a life-long continuity of all-sided and high-grade human living as its objective.

2. The curriculum will come to be seen simply as the twenty-four-hour, year-long continuity of guided and supervised human living.

3. The teacher's work will increasingly be to provide opportunities, stimulations, and guidance of the current living of the young people.

4. The needed knowledge, habits, skills, and appreciations will mostly come as the ever-changing and ever-renewed after-products of current all-sided normal living.

5. The science of human behavior will come to rank as the most important science, and all persons up to the limits of their ability will become familiar with it.

6. The young people will increasingly get their own education under self-direction as guided by their knowledge of the science of human behavior.

7. The family and the school will co-operate sympathetically, understandingly, and continuously in conditioning the current behavior of the young people.

8. Education will be administered in the local communities and schools in obedience to educational science as interpreted by the professional staffs of the local schools. The major function of the more central officials will be leadership in professional thought.

PROPHECY 3

Judging from the past, one may expect the tendency to increase opportunities for education to continue until the only limitation will be the individual's capacity to learn and to profit from instruction. The degree of educability of the pupil will not merely depend on his age but will be determined by testing procedures and other available methods. Careful educational and vocational guidance will urge some to go steadily forward to bring their education to completion and to enter the professions. Others will be advised to seek employment and to enter vocations at various stages of their educational period. In all cases pupils will be assisted in formulating plans for their future in order that they may make the most intelligent use of the educational opportunities.

School work will be organized to correspond to current needs. Obsolete materials will be discarded, and students will be enabled to come to the work they have planned and prepared for at a much earlier period.

Methods of teaching will be based on results verified by scientific experimentation rather than by experience alone, and much effective work in education

will be performed through such modern inventions and devices as the radio and the motion picture.

Those who are unable to remain in school as long as they desire, although they have the ability, will have opportunities at any time to re-enter or to avail themselves of special instruction provided to educate adults.

The significance of education to the continued welfare of the community will be increasingly appreciated until education is within reach of everybody who wants it.

PROPHECY 4

The program of American education a century from now will be determined by so many unforeseen factors that any attempt to make a forecast demands bold guessing. Present trends lead me, however, to hazard the following prediction.

We may anticipate a system of public education which will admit the child at the age of two or three years and, with respect to nutrition, play, and the development of desirable habits, will perform many of the functions which are now centered in the home. The nursery school, kindergarten, and elementary grades of today will be unified into a single administrative unit from which pupils will enter a middle division corresponding to our junior high school. From this middle division pupils will be admitted to a four- or five-year tax-supported college which will provide for the completion of general education. Admission to professional and graduate schools will be granted to those who complete their general education with a high degree of excellence. This in brief will be the probable plan of organization of public education.

The future of the privately endowed and privately controlled colleges of liberal arts will depend upon the adequacy of their endowment, their scholastic standing, and the growth of the public colleges previously mentioned. Most of them will probably follow in the footsteps of a great majority of the academies; that is, they will become mere memories. Others will continue as institutions providing a four-year liberal-arts curriculum, particularly for students whose interests lie in the field of general culture rather than in the direction of a specific profession or vocation.

The state universities, now so overgrown and congested, will be supplemented by the public colleges and the municipal universities, both of which are just making their appearance in the field of higher education. The state universities will, consequently, become more strictly research institutions with a restricted undergraduate enrolment and curriculum.

The processes of education in this hypothetical school system will represent the perfection of those procedures with which progressive educators are experimenting at present. Much more adequate provision will be made for individual differences, pupil self-expression, and independent study. Projects will provide much pupil activity and will be the means of developing interest, understanding, and appreciation. These projects will become increasingly comprehensive as the pupil advances to successive levels of education, and the rate of advance-

ment for each individual will be determined by his own capacity; that is, instruction will be much more highly individualized than it is at present. Classification of pupils by years will disappear, grades in terms of percentages or other marks will be abolished, and units of credit as a basis for measuring progress will be supplanted by more adequate measures.

The system of education characterized in this statement will provide (1) a unified program, (2) greater opportunity for self-realization according to individual ability, (3) economy of time through the completion of general education at an earlier age. On the other hand, it will, no doubt, place pupils under serious nervous tension and may result in social maladjustments owing to the various rates at which pupils will progress.

Prophecy 5

During the next hundred years I believe the appeal to personal authority regarding education will be supplanted almost entirely by an appeal to scientific knowledge. I believe the development of such a body of scientific knowledge will proceed rather slowly during the next twenty-five years but with increasing momentum after that time.

I look for the extension of universal education through the period of general education, with the elementary-school period reduced to four or five years followed by a secondary-school period of nine or ten years. Due to increasing facilities for production and consequent unemployment, I would expect a higher age of compulsory education than at present.

I look for an increased interest in the fine arts and in non-vocational education in proportion to the relief from economic strain due to new methods of production and distribution.

I expect the concept of education through schools to be greatly modified as the result of such inventions as radio, television, and sound pictures. The notion that schools are for children only will be supplanted by the notion that schools function for all members of society regardless of age. This should produce a popularization of education which will change the character of the political, economic, and social life of the world.

I expect much progress to be made toward a universal language.

Prophecy 6

The trends in American education during the next hundred years will, in my opinion, be along the following lines.

Greater emphasis will be placed upon an understanding of social institutions, modes of social behavior, and principles of social organization. The social sciences will be developed to the point where it will no longer be necessary to be mere opportunists in matters of social and public policy.

By the application of science and social engineering to the problems of distribution and consumption, as well as to the problems of production, poverty will be practically abolished. Increased leisure time will require that more attention be given to education of a cultural type.

Much progress will be made in discovering the nature of personality. There will be a far better understanding of human development—biological, mental, and emotional. A more complete understanding of the total personality of the individual will, of course, affect educational procedures at many points.

A number of changes will take place in the field of higher education. The liberal-arts college, as we know it today, will gradually disappear. What we know today as secondary and college education will be combined. The period of general education will probably begin at ten or twelve years of age and end at eighteen or twenty. All universities will probably be controlled by the state. The scientific study of the problems of higher education will have become well established.

The regular public schools will gradually give up the idea of giving technical and vocational training. That type of training will be given in technical schools proper and by industrial organizations in schools of their own. The scientific method of attack upon all manner of educational problems will be continued upon a larger scale and in a more fundamental way. The result will be that most educational procedures will be placed upon a factual basis. Educators will know what to do or what not to do in order to attain the desired ends.

Prophecy 7

In attempting to forecast the major trends in education during the next century, I shall assume that the economic and political development of the country will continue in general along the lines they are following at present. If this is the case, culture will continue to be diffused; industry and agriculture will be still further mechanized; and the demand for highly trained specialists in industry, business, the professions and, it is to be hoped, in politics will increase. On the other hand, the demand for vocational training at the lower and middle levels will probably decrease. The hours and years devoted to labor will also decrease.

This suggests the following trends: an extension of general education at public expense to include practically all youth up to eighteen or twenty years of age and the opportunity for education of either a special or general nature to adults of all ages; the expansion of education at all levels to include both a broader and fuller intellectual grasp of modern science, pure and applied, and a richer experience in the fine arts and in recreational activities; a large development in the higher levels of professional and technical education. As the psychology of mental development discovers the laws of mental growth, teachers will acquire skill in guiding children so as to promote mental health and an improved adjustment to our complex material and social environment. Thus, education will both reflect and influence the social, industrial, and political changes of the new era.

Prophecy 8

Studies of educational reforms in the past indicate clearly that trends from decade to decade are determined largely by changing social needs; dominant views concerning the aims, content, and methods of teaching; and the results

of scientific experiments. Since developments in these respects during the next century cannot be anticipated in detail, it is impossible to prophesy with any degree of assurance the specific nature of many of the changes which will take place. On the other hand, it seems safe to predict that education will adjust itself more quickly than at present to changing social needs; that it will be far better adapted to the needs, capacities, and dispositions of different types of learners; that the methods employed will be far more effective as a result of continued research and investigation; that the content taught will be far broader and richer at each level of advancement than is true today; that at least a broad general education, or the completion of what we now term the junior college, will be provided for everyone; that education will be a continuous process under organized agencies from the cradle to old age; and that education will be universally recognized as a science as well as an art and will have developed and refined its own methods of investigation.

PROPHECY 9

The amount of education required.—I anticipate a gradual lengthening of the period of institutional training for the more numerous groups whose limit of accomplishment or opportunity is to be defined in terms of general education. This much is the inevitable demand upon the schools of the changed conditions and interest of social life which must result from the contributions of science and industry to the improvement of standards of living from year to year. On the side of professional training, there will be at least a partial contrary influence resulting from more effective articulation of general and professional education, which will be stimulated by an interest in increasing the period of professional service of the individual who has been prepared for such service. The lengthening of general education as such and the shortening of the time within which both a general and a professional course may be completed will in time be further stimulated by the conscious desire to diminish the general social distinctions resulting from different amounts and kinds of schooling. In general, the tendency will be in the direction of more liberal provision for educational opportunities, defined and limited by the individual's interests and capacity.

The nature of the training provided.—The curriculums of these succeeding hundred years will draw more largely upon contemporary movements for subject matter and will give increasing emphasis to matters of physical and social well-being; but always there will be a core curriculum of recognized traditional value, the comprehension of which will be the central aim of formal school training. Similarly, there will be continuously appearing new devices and procedures for developing powers of independent work but no serious thought of disregarding the complementary force of adequate self-control to be acquired by experience in conforming to standards imposed by authority or by social sanction.

PROPHECY 10

I predict that higher education in America will receive increasing emphasis in the next few generations. With the great increase in scientific knowledge, I look for much greater specialization than now exists. As far as graduate work

is concerned, this will probably mean a longer and more intensive period of training with the possible addition of a degree beyond the Ph.D. as it is now administered.

As far as colleges of education are concerned, I predict that we shall have a course of practical training beyond academic work, corresponding to the training of an interne in a hospital after completing his medical work. This postgraduate training will probably be very specialized and will be conducted in highly organized centers in large city school systems.

I also forecast another great war more devastating than the last one, after which America will survive as the leading nation of the world both commercially and educationally. This prosperity, however, will eventually lead to much greater unhappiness and discontent than exists even now. I don't believe the human race will be any better off in a hundred years than it is today.

Prophecy 11

Prophecy concerning secondary education in this country at the end of another century must take account of progress during the last quarter-century in the application of inductive procedures in education and in the social fields related to education. This recent progress in the sciences of education and of society seems to warrant the prediction that educational procedures on secondary and other levels near the opening of the twenty-first century will be almost entirely established in evidence objectively derived. Judging from present trends, by that time, also, education on the secondary level will have been completely popularized, and the progress of science will have made possible a satisfactory adaptation of training programs to the wide differences in individuals represented. The same procedures will have achieved an adequately articulated system of schools. Complete popularization will be accompanied by a development of adult education that will, for most persons, carry systematic training throughout life. By 2031 private secondary education will have become a matter of merely historical interest.

Prophecy 12

1. Much technical training, for example in merchandizing and other commercial lines, will be taken over by the occupations themselves. Training "on the job" will supplement school training and often be contemporaneous with it.

2. The higher educational institutions, especially the professional schools, will grow very much more rigid in entrance requirements; students will be required to attain and maintain higher levels of achievement. The same selective principles, somewhat less vigorously applied, will probably operate in the secondary schools and colleges.

3. To a certain extent offsetting the growingly selective nature of higher education, the field of adult education, which during the present decade (1925–35) is just gaining headway, will be largely expanded. Public agencies will take over adult education which is today largely in the hands of commercial agencies.

4. Very much more emphasis will be placed in the lower schools on cultural and avocational training as contrasted with vocational and even professional training, as the advancement of machinery rapidly reduces the average working day.

5. The adequate training of men and women to take an intelligent and conscientious part in the duties of citizenship will gradually develop. The present inadequate and imperfect endeavors to make students regard their educational institutions as communities whose members have citizenship obligations will rapidly improve. What we know today as the "social studies" will assume a predominating place in secondary education.

6. Similarly, ethical education, character-building, will emerge from its present indefiniteness and imperfection. Society will learn that it does not pay to make citizens proficient if they remain unscrupulous.

Prophecy 13

The point of organic maturity will have been scientifically determined, and the maturing process will have been brought under control. Maturity will probably be found to be reached normally at about the age of twenty-five with a narrow range plus or minus on either side.

The period of infancy will have extended to organic maturity.

The common school will have extended to include the entire period of infancy for the entire population and will cover both general education and specialized training.

The period of general education will normally be complete shortly after the establishment of the adolescent changes—probably at about the age of eighteen.

All the ordinary vocational activities of life will have been brought to the level of professionalization. Common labor, as it is defined today, will have entirely disappeared. Industry will have become responsible for all forms of commercial and industrial training, and the cost thereof will be distributed in the prices charged for industrial products.

The state will provide all forms of training for social service. Law and medicine will have become social-service professions, substantially parallel with teaching.

Universities will be places of resort for adults devoted to the pursuit of knowledge and what is now called "research." For these purposes, individuals will periodically retire to universities for intellectual and cultural renewal and progress throughout life.

Prophecy 14

I believe that during the coming century education will attain the status of a true science; that, although certain elements will be proved to be common to all good teaching, special branches of the science, characterized by distinctive elements, will be developed; that in time emphasis in the main will be put not on isolated "parts" of desirable "wholes" (as in time past), not chiefly on "wholes" with little recognition of essential "parts" (as at present and probably

in the near future), but on such "parts" as will have been proved requisite steps toward the comprehension of desirable "wholes" and on the use of those parts in gaining such comprehension; that educational matters will then be commonly viewed in their proper perspective, without the distortions to which biases of vision give rise.

PROPHECY 15

It is my prediction that education one hundred years hence will have attained the status of an established science. Most of the problems which baffle classroom teachers today, such as the diagnosis and treatment of disabilities in learning and the control of learning, will be so well understood by teachers in general that the advice of the specialist in education can be skilfully carried out in school practice. The school will be able not only to analyze pupil abilities and to direct their development within the limits of the abilities possessed by individual pupils but also to provide wise guidance to pupils in the choice of careers in which their abilities may be put to greatest use.

The administration of education will likewise have become a science, and administrative officers will have such control of the facts which influence education that administrative difficulties will no longer be offered as excuses for failure to put into practice the contributions of educational science. Progress in the fields of economics and politics will have made possible adequate financial support for education because the science of education and related sciences will have made unnecessary the expenditures now vainly applied to reform, rehabilitation, and corrective agencies. Building improvements and physical equipment will have made possible the direction and control of the health and recreational interests of both children and adults, which will prevent much of the sickness and crime that now make for waste and low standards of community life.

The school will have assumed a much larger responsibility for the development of the tastes of the young for the fine arts than at present. As a result, both the creation and the enjoyment of art products will be greatly increased. This development will bring vocational and avocational activities closer together than ever before. The skilful service of the school will enable individuals to find creative work which will make avocational pursuits largely unnecessary. Thus, education will make the physical world a more beautiful place to live in as well as make the people better and nobler beings.

My faith in the future accomplishments of education for the welfare of humankind is based on the progress of educational science and its results during my period of professional service.

PROPHECY 16

It appears probable that during the century the school day and the school year will both be lengthened for the child below the age of eighteen years and shortened for young men and women beyond eighteen years of age. A majority of men and women will participate in some form of organized adult education

throughout life. There will be a tendency to make more extensive use of mass-production methods in education. This will result in a more highly centralized educational system. Educational centers will be established for the purpose of broadcasting lectures, music, art exhibits, and demonstrations of various kinds. Methods employed in broadcasting will include the filmophone and television. Travel will have an important place in formal school programs. Entire schools and other educational institutions will be transported by air to distant points in order that pupils and students may obtain first-hand information and make personal observations.

PROPHECY 17

I believe that during the next one hundred years one of the most conspicuous trends in American education will be the development and final establishment of the nursery school, now going through a period of experimentation, as a recognized part of the kindergarten-primary unit in public education. Parallel with this movement there will be, necessarily, rapid development of parent education. Both of these movements, guided by the results of scientific study, will have a marked effect on the curriculum and methods of early education.

At the other end of the educational system I believe the young people of the next two or three generations will benefit by a rather general acceptance of the new Chicago plan, in variously modified forms, for the reorganization of higher education.

Probably a third significant trend will be evident in the field of teacher-training where standards will be much higher and professional preparation much more thorough.

PROPHECY 18

In 2031 education in the United States will be administered by directors of education in the metropolitan areas into which the United States will then be divided. The present state departments of education will have passed out of existence with the abolishment of states as governmental units.

There will probably be not over twenty of these metropolitan areas. To govern these areas the populace will elect a group of individuals, in the hands of which all the governmental functions will lie. This group of individuals will have general charge of all the schools in the area, all the administrative officers being appointed by it.

The school building will be very large, located in wide open spaces. All students from about ten to eighteen years of age will be in the same building. Those from three to ten will also be in the same, but a smaller, building located also in the open country. Free transportation will be furnished all pupils. There will be many more buildings provided for this latter group of pupils.

Each metropolitan area will maintain one or more universities. Many individuals will remain in these institutions throughout their lives inasmuch as it will not be necessary to work more than three days a week, thus leaving ample time for one to continue a line of study in the university. It will be possible

in these metropolitan universities for students to pursue work along every line of human concern. Inasmuch as those entering them will have mastered the tools of learning in the lower schools, there will be no need for an organized system of instruction. Professors and students will work together on problems in which they are mutually interested. Each student will be doing that which he feels is most needed for him at any particular time. No degrees will be granted to students inasmuch as their university career will be a life-long affair.

In the schools for children from three to ten years of age there will be no subjects such as arithmetic, geography, spelling, and the like. Each child will be given whatever he needs to make the next step in his education exactly what it ought to be for him. When a pupil arrives at a given age, he will be sent on to the next divisional organization regardless of what he knows or can do. There will be special schools for all abnormal children. Books and other supplies will be furnished to all without cost.

In the schools for pupils from ten to eighteen years of age the emphasis will center on the mastering of the tools of learning, which will be needed on entering the metropolitan university. The tools of learning which will be needed in the fields of language, natural science, physical science, and social science will be mastered by all according to prognosticated needs. Students will remain in this division of the education ladder until they have mastered the tools needed successfully to pursue work in the next higher division. While a student is mastering the tools necessary for effective work in one field of endeavor, he will be given the opportunity to attend lectures in other lines. Inasmuch as there will be maintained in these schools courses of lectures dealing with all the major aspects of human concern, opportunity will be afforded the general populace to attend them, thus making it possible for all citizens to keep abreast of the main currents of thought of their day. All these lectures will be televisioned to the world at large so that those who for various reasons are not able to go to the place of their delivery may be able to reap all the benefits to be derived from them.

Prophecy 19

Modern trends in institutional education point to an ever increasing desire upon the part of educators to provide a program of education that will care for the individual needs of the pupils. At present (1) the expansion of curricular offerings, (2) the individual selection of courses, (3) supervised individual instruction, (4) individual lesson sheets and assignments are provisions in education that will continue to care for the separate needs of individual pupils in the future. Such practices will expand until eventually they will permit pupils to develop their own individualities to a greater extent than is now possible.

As this process of developing personality continues, the system of education will be forced to take into account the fact that the well-balanced personality does not isolate itself from the social group but rather entertains a keen respect for the rights of others. Along with the present trends in education which tend to develop individuality and personality in pupils, therefore, will be introduced

educational practices which will develop in pupils a respect for the individualities of others.

PROPHECY 20

In 1831 there were probably few, if any, persons who, if they had been asked to predict the changes a century would bring in America's program of education would have permitted their imaginations to run the gantlet of such far-reaching developments as the last one hundred years have actually brought. Even with the background of experience represented by these developments, are we in position to envisage the achievements of the coming century with any high degree of reliability? It is doubtful.

On one aspect is it possible to speak with certainty. Changes will continue to come. Our conception of education as a vital element in our social, economic, and governmental progress makes this conclusion inevitable. We are only beginning to feel the consequences of the introduction of machinery and the utilization of the forces of nature on our life. Yet they are already working a revolution in our economic and social life. In consequence, readjustments of a fundamental character are now under way. In estimating the influence of these changes, we cannot be guided exclusively by the past. Our concept of society demands that our economic, social, and governmental developments shall comprehend all of our people. Older civilizations chose to formulate their programs of education so as to include the controlling classes only. Since with us education is the central element in our economic, social, and governmental development, this is impossible.

More specifically, then, we may look toward increased opportunities for education to prepare for leisure; whether this be by adult education or by extension of the opportunities during youth or by both are details that should be left to experience to determine. To an increasing degree emphasis will be placed on education as a means of the development of more dynamic concepts of our social and economic life. Formal education will become a more positive force for change than it has been in the past. Again, it should be recognized that developments of this character will react upon the school as an institution. They will demand educated, as well as trained, teachers. It perhaps is not too much to hope that this will be one of the achievements of the next one hundred years.

THE SOCIAL COMPOSITION OF THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL POPULATION IN OKLAHOMA

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The findings of Counts in his study entitled *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*[1] prompted the writer to investigate certain characteristics of the secondary-school population in Oklahoma. Data were secured during the school year 1925–26 from all pupils attending public secondary schools on a given day in the following cities and towns: Oklahoma City, Tulsa, Muskogee, Okmulgee, Enid, Ardmore, Chickasha, Lawton, Hobart, Woodward, Pauls Valley, Nowata, Jenks, Wellston, Antlers, Medford, and Nash.

All together, information was received from 11,144 pupils enrolled in Grades IX–XII and from 4,655 pupils enrolled in Grades VII and VIII. The data may be considered typical of the state as a whole since they account for the entire enrolment in accredited secondary schools in cities with populations of more than 30,000, for 20 per cent of the enrolment in cities with populations of 9,000–30,000, for 11 per cent of the enrolment in cities with populations of 2,500–5,000, and for 2.1 per cent of the enrolment in towns with populations of less than 2,500. In order that the results might be comparable, the exact procedures described by Counts were followed, in so far as possible, in the conduct of the present study.

COMPARISON OF THE TOTAL REPRESENTATION IN THE TWO STUDIES

Counts's investigation of the characteristics of the secondary-school population in Bridgeport, Connecticut; Mount Vernon, New York; St. Louis, Missouri; and Seattle, Washington, resulted in the striking conclusion that the American secondary school is a highly selective institution. The results of the present study also reveal

[1] George Sylvester Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 19. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1922.

that the children of the non-laboring classes in Oklahoma avail themselves of secondary-school privileges to a greater extent than do children of the laboring classes. However, the writer found less variation in the percentages of the different occupational groups represented in the secondary-school population of cities in Oklahoma in 1925–26 than Counts found in 1919–20 and 1920–21 in the four more highly industrialized cities included in his study.

Limitations of space will permit the inclusion of only a few of the tabulations and conclusions. With respect to numbers, if data from the three largest cities in Oklahoma may be considered typical, all occupational groups were better represented in the secondary schools of Oklahoma in 1925–26 than they were in the secondary schools studied by Counts in 1919–20 and 1920–21.[1] The average representation of all occupational groups in the high schools in the four cities of Bridgeport, Mount Vernon, St. Louis, and Seattle was found by Counts to be 189 secondary-school pupils (Grades IX–XII) for every 1,000 males over forty-five years of age.[2] The present study reveals that in Oklahoma City, Tulsa, and Muskogee there were 350 secondary-school pupils for every 1,000 males over forty-five years of age. Figure 1 shows the representation of each of the occupational groups in the secondary-school population. With three exceptions the classifications represented in the figure are the same for the two studies. Counts made a separate classification of the printing trades, but these trades constituted so small a percentage of the high-school population in the Oklahoma cities studied that separate classification was hardly justified.[3] It is significant that the two groups which had the highest representation in Oklahoma secondary schools, namely, agricultural service[4] and brokers, were not sufficiently prevalent in the cities studied by Counts to merit dis-

[1] St. Louis, with a population of nearly 800,000 in 1920, reported to the United States Office of Education an enrolment of 14,585 for Grades IX–XII in 1925–26. For the same scholastic year Muskogee, Tulsa, and Oklahoma City, which together are credited by the 1920 census with approximately one-fourth the population of St. Louis, reported a combined enrolment of 10,372 in Grades IX–XII.

[2] George Sylvester Counts, *op. cit.*, p. 33.

[3] The classification of the occupational groups that was used may be found on pages 22–23 of Counts's study.

[4] In a tabulation given on page 26 of his study Counts shows agricultural service to be represented by only 416 pupils in the total high-school enrolment in the four cities.

tinct representation in his diagram.[1] The favorable showing made by the group of brokers may be partly accounted for by the prominence of the oil industry in Tulsa. Those persons who dealt with cotton and real estate in such a way that their earnings were sub-

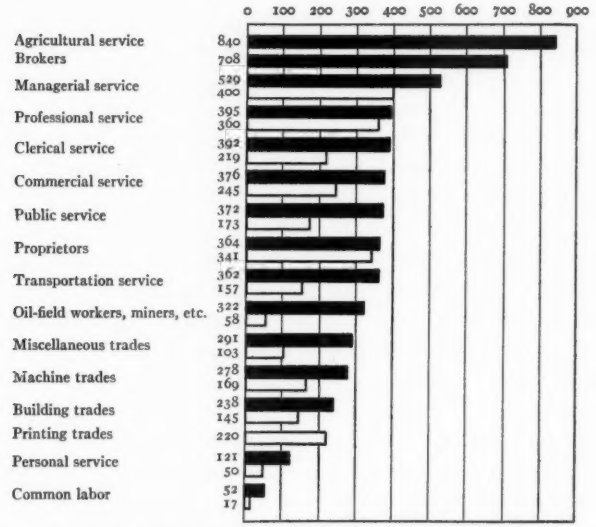

FIG. 1.—The number of children enrolled in high school for each 1,000 males engaged in various occupations in 1919–20 and 1920–21 in Bridgeport, Mount Vernon, St. Louis, and Seattle (white bars) and in 1925–26 in Muskogee, Oklahoma City, and Tulsa (black bars).

ject to chance more than those of persons in other occupations were also included in this group.

Certain other striking differences in the characteristics of the secondary-school populations considered in the two studies are revealed by the data which the figure illustrates. While the proprietary classes rank third in numerical representation in the cities studied by Counts, they barely attain eighth place in the three Oklahoma cities; the machine trades rank eighth in the former group of cities and twelfth in the latter. The greatest differences in the numerical representations attained by different groups in the two studies, how-

[1] George Sylvester Counts, *op. cit.*, p. 33.

ever, are found in two groups which rank low in Counts's study. The representation in secondary schools of the group designated as oil-field workers, miners, etc., in Oklahoma schools is six times as large as that in the cities studied by Counts, while the representation of common labor in Oklahoma is three times as large as that in the cities studied by Counts.

INFLUENCE OF THE SIZE OF THE CITY ON THE REPRESENTATION OF THE VARIOUS GROUPS

A more detailed presentation of the characteristics of the secondary-school population in Oklahoma is given in Table I. In this

TABLE I

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTIONS OF OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS OR GUARDIANS OF 11,144 PUPILS IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF FOUR GROUPS OF TOWNS OR CITIES IN OKLAHOMA

Parental Occupation	Class I (3 Cities with Populations of over 30,000)	Class II (5 Cities with Populations of 9,000–30,000)	Class III (4 Cities with Populations of 2,500–5,000)	Class IV (5 Towns with Populations of Less than 2,500)	Total
Proprietors	10.0	12.5	10.0	7.1	10.7
Professional service	8.1	7.3	5.7	5.3	7.4
Brokers	6.2	4.4	3.5	0.4	5.0
Managerial service	14.8	10.7	7.2	4.2	12.2
Commercial service	15.5	11.9	9.0	5.0	13.2
Clerical service	5.1	3.3	1.5	0.5	3.9
Agricultural service	4.7	14.3	38.4	49.4	13.3
Artisan-proprietors	2.7	3.5	3.8	2.7	3.1
Building trades	7.4	7.8	3.6	2.7	6.9
Machine trades	6.7	5.3	3.6	6.2	5.9
Miscellaneous trades	2.2	2.0	0.6	1.4	2.0
Transportation service	4.9	6.9	3.0	2.7	5.3
Public service	1.9	1.6	2.4	1.8	1.8
Personal service	1.7	1.9	1.2	0.5	1.7
Oil-field workers, miners, etc.	1.5	2.3	2.4	6.4	2.1
Common labor	0.9	1.1	1.6	1.4	1.1
Unknown	5.7	3.2	2.5	2.3	4.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

table are shown separately for cities of four sizes the percentage distributions of the occupations of the fathers or guardians of the 11,144 pupils in the high-school population without regard to the extent to which such occupations were represented in the total population of the separate cities. It will be noted that, in inverse propor-

tion to the size of the cities, increases in the percentages of representation of the laboring groups are balanced by an almost uniform decrease in the percentages of representation of the six non-laboring groups.

Certain of the laboring groups show striking variations when the cities are grouped according to size. While the agricultural group is represented by only 4.7 per cent in the largest cities, it increases to 49.4 per cent in towns of less than 2,500 population. On the whole, five of the six non-laboring groups (professional service, brokers, managerial service, commercial service, and clerical service) show a marked uniform decrease in their relative numerical importance as the sizes of the cities decrease, while three of the laboring groups (agricultural service, oil-field workers and miners, and common labor) just as consistently attain greater numerical representation as the cities become smaller in size.

PROPORTIONATE REPRESENTATION OF THE VARIOUS GROUPS IN THE UPPER AND LOWER GRADES

The proportionate representation or stability of the various occupational groups as the pupils pass from grade to grade through senior high school is shown in Table II, in which a comparison is made of the number of pupils from each occupational group in the twelfth grade for each one hundred in the ninth grade as represented in sixteen Oklahoma cities and in the four cities investigated by Counts. The data from Oklahoma are for 3,310 pupils in the ninth grade and 1,941 in the twelfth grade; those from Bridgeport, Mount Vernon, St. Louis, and Seattle are for 2,522 pupils in the twelfth grade and 6,782 pupils in the ninth grade. The findings of Counts are also applicable to some extent to Oklahoma cities in that a more favorable showing is made by children of the non-laboring groups. Pupils representing the laboring groups of Oklahoma, however, are shown to be much more stable in their progress through senior high school than Counts found them to be.

The occupational groups take slightly different ranks in Table III, which gives the number of pupils in the twelfth grade for each one hundred pupils in the seventh grade. The data from Oklahoma are for 2,073 seventh-grade pupils and 1,163 twelfth-grade pupils. The advance of the agricultural group in Oklahoma from eighth to

third in rank is to be accounted for largely by the fact that many pupils from rural districts enrol in adjoining city districts because of the poor high-school facilities in the district of their residence. The public-service group also makes a more favorable showing, while the machine trades fall from thirteenth to sixteenth in rank. Again,

TABLE II

NUMBER OF PUPILS IN THE TWELFTH GRADE FOR EACH ONE HUNDRED IN THE NINTH GRADE IN SIXTEEN OKLAHOMA CITIES IN 1925–26 COMPARED WITH BRIDGEPORT, MT. VERNON, ST. LOUIS, AND SEATTLE IN 1919–20 AND 1920–21

Occupational Group	Oklahoma Cities	Bridgeport, Mt. Vernon, St. Louis, Seattle*
Brokers	108.7	.....
Professional service	84.8	60.2
Managerial service	70.8	46.2
Proprietors	66.3	48.2
Commercial service	66.1	48.2
Clerical service	63.5	37.4
Personal service	59.6	21.9
Agricultural service	58.1	37.0
Artisan-proprietors	51.3	30.5
Printing trades	.....	27.5
Oil-field workers, miners, etc.	49.4	22.6
Building trades	39.6	22.4
Transportation service	36.8	21.6
Machine trades	35.3	20.6
Public service	33.3	23.9
Miscellaneous trades	27.4	18.1
Common labor	25.5	12.4
All occupations	58.6	37.2

* George Sylvester Counts, *op. cit.*, p. 38.

a more favorable showing is made for all groups, but most strikingly for the laboring groups, when a comparison is made with like data concerning pupils in the sixth and twelfth grades secured by Counts in the Mount Vernon schools.

INFLUENCE OF CERTAIN ECONOMIC FACTORS ON THE REPRESENTATION OF THE VARIOUS GROUPS IN HIGH SCHOOL

By and large, the death of the father may be considered as the factor affecting more than any other the economic status of the family. Table IV shows that 9.1 per cent of all junior high school

pupils and 10.0 per cent of all senior high school pupils in the Oklahoma cities studied had suffered the loss of their fathers. When the percentages for the various groups are considered separately, it is found that large percentages of the children representing agricultural, professional, and transportation services continued to attend

TABLE III

NUMBER OF PUPILS IN THE TWELFTH GRADE FOR EACH ONE HUNDRED IN THE SEVENTH GRADE IN SIX OKLAHOMA CITIES IN 1925–26 COMPARED WITH THE NUMBER IN THE TWELFTH GRADE FOR EACH ONE HUNDRED IN THE SIXTH GRADE IN MT. VERNON IN 1921

Occupational Group	Oklahoma Cities	Mt. Vernon*
Brokers	118.2	.....
Professional service	104.8	46.0
Agricultural service	100.0	0.0
Managerial service	82.5	37.8
Proprietors	81.8	41.2
Commercial service	70.8	47.7
Clerical service	58.5	21.9
Personal service	41.5	0.0
Oil-field workers, miners, etc.	36.0	0.0
Artisan-proprietors	32.6	10.4
Public service	32.0	0.0
Transportation service	30.5	3.2
Building trades	28.4	0.8
Miscellaneous trades	22.1	7.9
Common labor	21.6	0.0
Machine trades	17.3	2.9
Printing trades	.....	0.0
All occupations	56.1	18.4

* George Sylvester Counts, *op. cit.*, p. 42.

both junior and senior high schools after the death of their fathers. In the case of agricultural service, however, there is a very sharp decrease in the percentage for senior high schools as compared with that for junior high schools. It might be argued on good grounds that the favorable showing made by the professional-service group is due to superior home environment as well as to financial status. However, the same argument could not be advanced as plausibly in the case of the transportation-service group. On the other hand, two of the occupational groups, managerial service and artisan-proprietors, were represented in both junior and senior high schools

by only small percentages of children who had suffered the loss of their fathers. For these two groups it is not likely that the economic status of the family was the chief determinant of the small representation, although it may be that, in the case of these two groups, greater opportunities in the business world account for the relatively

TABLE IV

PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS OF EACH OCCUPATIONAL GROUP WHOSE FATHERS WERE DECEASED

PARENTAL OCCUPATION	JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL (GRADES VII, VIII, IX)		SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL (GRADES X, XI, XII)	
	Percentage	Rank	Percentage	Rank
Unknown	38.9	1	46.4	1
Agricultural service	21.3	2	13.0	3
Professional service	11.1	3	14.5	2
Clerical service	10.0	4	5.5	14
Transportation service	9.1	5	11.2	4
Personal service	8.5	6	5.4	15
Public service	7.9	7	7.3	9
Proprietors	7.4	8	7.7	7
Machine trades	7.2	9	6.8	11
Common labor	6.5	10	6.7	12
Building trades	6.0	11	6.6	13
Brokers	5.7	12	7.5	8
Miscellaneous trades	5.5	13	8.3	6
Oil-field workers, miners, etc.	5.4	14	10.7	5
Commercial service	5.1	15	7.0	10
Managerial service	4.3	16	5.2	16
Artisan-proprietors	2.6	17	2.3	17
All occupations	9.1	.....	10.0	.....

low percentages of children in the secondary schools of the state after the death of the fathers.

The percentages of children in junior and senior high schools whose fathers were deceased show little variation in the case of five occupational groups, namely, public service, proprietors, machine trades, common labor, and building trades. It is true that the proprietors were represented in greater proportion than were the laboring groups, but not to a considerable extent.

While the groups considered so far show little variation in the percentages of children in junior and senior high schools whose fathers were deceased, the remaining six groups show sharp contrasts in the percentages in the two schools. In the case of the brokers,

miscellaneous trades, oil-field workers, and commercial service the percentages in senior high school were decidedly greater than the percentages in junior high school; the reverse is true for the clerical- and personal-service groups. In the case of the four groups first mentioned it could hardly be contended that economic forces were the chief determinants. In fact, the results thus far presented tend rather to discount the notion that there is a consistent relation between economic or social status and the degree to which the various groups are represented in high school.

In order that the influence of economic factors on attendance in the secondary schools might be ascertained, all pupils in the Oklahoma schools were asked the following two questions: (1) "Do you have regular work outside of high-school hours by which you contribute to your own support?" (2) "Does your mother contribute to the support of the family?" To the first question 2,661 pupils, or 23.9 per cent of the total number from whom data were secured, replied in the affirmative. In answer to the second question affirmative replies were received from 1,733 pupils, or 15.6 per cent of the total number.

TABLE V

PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN EACH GRADE IN THE OKLAHOMA HIGH SCHOOLS STUDIED WHO CONTRIBUTED TO THEIR OWN SUPPORT BY WORKING REGULARLY OUTSIDE OF SCHOOL HOURS

Grade	Percentage of Pupils
IX	20.1
X	23.5
XI	24.2
XII	29.9

When the data are assembled according to high-school grades, as in Table V, it appears that the percentage of pupils contributing toward their own support increases steadily with progress through the senior high school. The fact that almost 30 per cent of all Seniors contributed toward their own support indicates that economic handicaps to a high-school education were being overcome to a considerable extent in Oklahoma by the time the final year was reached.

Interesting variations are also revealed when the data from the two questions are assembled according to the size of the city. The

percentages assembled in Table VI indicate that parents and children in the smaller cities were overcoming greater handicaps for the sake of high-school educations than were those in the larger cities. However, the increase is not uniformly in inverse proportion to the size of the city.

For comparative purposes the data in Table VII are assembled separately in order to reveal the percentages of children from the various occupational groups who answered affirmatively each of the two questions. In general, it appears that the children of the laboring groups made up the greater proportion of those in high school who were supplementing the income earned by the father. When the

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE OF HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS AND PERCENTAGE OF MOTHERS OF HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS IN OKLAHOMA WHO CONTRIBUTED TOWARD THE SUPPORT OF THE FAMILY IN CITIES OF FOUR POPULATION GROUPS

Population of Cities	Percentage of Pupils	Percentage of Mothers
Over 30,000 (3 cities).....	22.3	15.4
9,000–30,000 (5 cities).....	24.5	14.3
2,500–5,000 (4 cities).....	28.4	19.8
Less than 2,500 (5 towns)....	28.1	16.7

groups are considered separately, personal service; agricultural service; oil-field workers, miners, etc.; and common labor rank consistently high both in the percentage of pupils and in the percentage of mothers who contributed to the support of the family; the miscellaneous trades, public service, and transportation service maintain an intermediate position in both instances; artisan-proprietors, managerial service, clerical service, and brokers, on the other hand, are not represented by as large a percentage of mothers or children who contributed to their own support as are the other groups.

In general it is noted that, of those in the high school who stated that the father was aided by other members in the support of the family, the laboring groups are represented to a much greater extent than are the non-laboring groups. No doubt, such help is more of a necessity in the case of the former group. It would seem that the relatively high proportion of children of the laboring groups who were attending high school was a result of the fact that these chil-

dren were overcoming to a great extent the economic handicaps with which they were faced in order that a high-school education might be obtained.

While the data of the present study are considered typical of Oklahoma at the time collected, it could hardly be claimed that

TABLE VII

PERCENTAGE OF HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS AND PERCENTAGE OF MOTHERS OF HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS IN EACH OCCUPATIONAL GROUP WHO CONTRIBUTED TOWARD THE SUPPORT OF THE FAMILY

PARENTAL OCCUPATION	PUPILS		MOTHERS	
	Percentage	Rank	Percentage	Rank
Personal service	33.8	1	23.1	2
Agricultural service	32.6	2	19.3	4
Machine trades	32.3	3	15.9	8
Oil-field workers, miners, etc.	29.5	4	16.7	5
Building trades	27.4	5	13.5	13
Common labor	27.0	6	22.7	3
Unknown	26.6	7	39.4	1
Public service	26.0	8	14.7	11
Miscellaneous trades	25.8	9	15.6	9
Transportation service	25.6	10	16.3	6
Proprietors	23.4	11.5	16.0	7
Artisan-proprietors	23.4	11.5	11.7	15
Commercial service	19.8	13	14.2	12
Managerial service	19.4	14	9.3	16
Clerical service	18.5	15	12.1	14
Professional service	16.3	16	15.0	10
Brokers	11.9	17	5.9	17
All occupations	23.8	.....	15.5	.....

they are typical of the United States as a whole. On the contrary, the prediction might be made more confidently that a study of the secondary-school population in any other state or geographical area would vary as much from the present findings as the present findings vary from those of Counts. It is true that the study of the social composition of the secondary-school population in Oklahoma was made five years later than the study made by Counts. In the light of the foregoing data, however, the question might be seriously raised: If Counts had included in his study cities of more varied size and economic characteristics than the four which he chose, would not his conclusions concerning the selectiveness of secondary education in America have been materially different?

READING GUIDED BY QUESTIONS VERSUS CAREFUL READING AND RE-READING WITHOUT QUESTIONS

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Description of the problem.—Approximately ten years ago Charles E. Germane published the results of an investigation concerning the merits of two reading procedures for college students.[1] His report was severely criticized from the point of view of the technique employed.

Germane compared, experimentally, undirected reading of a selection with reading guided by specific questions. He measured the relative values of the two procedures solely in terms of the answers given by two groups of readers to the questions used in study by a directed-reading group. Many criticisms were launched against this phase of the investigation, since, it was argued, the undirected-reading group might have derived a significantly larger number of supplementary meaning values which would offset, so far as total meaning values were concerned, the superior achievement of the directed-study group on the answers to the questions used in study.

The study reported in this article was planned for the purpose of investigating more completely the values of the two reading procedures investigated by Germane. Germane measured the derived meaning values in terms of the answers to questions used in study by one of the experimental groups; the present investigation measured the derived meaning values in terms of the answers to questions used in study by one experimental group and also by the answers to an equal number of supplementary questions not used in study by either group. Germane used only one type of material; the present study involved two types of material, namely, material in the field of the history of English literature and material in the field of science. Germane measured only immediate recall; the present in-

[1] Charles E. Germane, "The Value of the Controlled Mental Summary as a Method of Studying," *School and Society*, XII (December 11, 1920), 591–93.

vestigation measured immediate recall and delayed recall. Germane carried out only one experiment in determining the relative values of the two procedures for immediate recall; the present study included two experiments relating to immediate recall for each type of material in order that the validity of results might be checked.

General technique of the major investigation.—Two preliminary experiments not included in the major investigation were carried on for the purpose of developing an appropriate technique for the study of the problem. The general technique so derived was further refined through tryout with a non-experimental group of students. Six experiments were planned in the major investigation, four relating to immediate recall and two relating to delayed recall of material read. Of the four experiments relating to immediate recall, two utilized selections in the field of the history of English literature, and two utilized selections in the field of science. Of the two experiments relating to delayed recall, one made use of material in the field of the history of English literature, and the other made use of material in the field of science.

The selections read in the investigation were taken from textbooks commonly used in the two fields and contained no unusual terms that were not explained by the context. Each selection was approximately two thousand words in length.

Students at the State Teachers College, Mankato, Minnesota, were the subjects in the investigation. Two plans were followed in classifying the students into equated groups. In the experiments relating to immediate recall, the Whipple High-School and College Reading Test was administered to one group of eighty-four students, and parallel groups were formed on the basis of the results. In the experiments relating to delayed recall, the Whipple High-School and College Reading Test and a specially constructed word-retention test were administered to a totally different group of eighty-six students, and parallel groups were formed on the basis of composite scores.

In both the immediate-recall and the delayed-recall experiments, the groups were reversed after each experiment so that the effect of practice might be controlled. For example, the group which read the first selection with the guidance of questions read the second selection carefully without the guidance of questions. The two vari-

ables, time and student attitude, were held constant. In each immediate-recall experiment both groups read for the same length of time with the knowledge that a test would immediately follow. In the two delayed-recall experiments both groups read for the same length of time with an active determination to remember what they read for recall after a period of two weeks.

The study procedure followed by each group is explained in detail in the direction sheet given to each student. For Group A the mimeographed material distributed to each student consisted of the direction sheet for Group A, a sheet containing the twenty guiding questions to be used in reading, and the article itself. For Group B the material consisted of the direction sheet for the group and the article. (It will be noted that here and subsequently "Procedure A" and "Group A" refer, respectively, to the reading procedure guided by questions and to the group following that procedure. Similarly, "Procedure B" and "Group B" refer to undirected careful reading and to the group following that procedure.) The direction sheets for Groups A and B were worded as follows:

DIRECTIONS FOR GROUP A

On the next page you will find twenty questions. You are to read the article on the following pages carefully to find the answer to each of the twenty questions or to as many of the twenty questions as you can in the time allowed. The answers to the questions will be found in the same order as that of the questions themselves.

Read the first question over. Then begin the article and continue reading until you find the answer to that question. When you have found the answer, refer again to the list of questions, reading the second question carefully before continuing the reading of the article from the point previously reached.

Do not go on to the second question until you have found the answer to the first. Do not go on to any question until you have found the answer to the one preceding it.

Do not write anything.

Wait until you are told to begin.

DIRECTIONS FOR GROUP B

On the following pages you will find an article to be read. You are to read it through as rapidly as possible. Do not, however, skip any part of it. When you have read it through once, begin again and re-read it in the same way. Read it through completely each time. Re-read it as many times as you can in the time allowed. Remember to *read as fast as you can without omitting anything.*

When you are asked to stop, write at the bottom of this page the number of times you read the whole article through.

Write your name at the top of this page. Do not turn this page until you are asked to do so.

The students in Group A were further directed to verify the answers to any questions concerning which they were in doubt after reading the article once with the guidance of the study questions.

Both groups took the same test after the study period. In the immediate-recall experiments the test was administered immediately following the reading. In the delayed-recall experiments the test was administered two weeks after the study period. In all six experiments the tests were similarly constructed. Each test consisted of the twenty questions used by Group A in study together with twenty supplementary questions not previously known to either group. Four possible answers, only one of which was correct, followed each of the forty questions.[1] Every student was allowed as much time as he needed or desired to complete a test since accuracy of information rather than speed of recall was to be measured. Each student's test paper was scored in terms of the number of correct responses to questions used by Group A in study and correct responses to supplementary questions. One point was given for each correct response.

Statistical findings of the investigation.—Table I presents the findings of Experiments 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 with respect to the merits of the two procedures in immediate and delayed recall of all meaning values. In explanation of the numbering of the experiments, it might be said that Experiments 1 and 2 were the preliminary experiments not included in the major investigation. Experiments 3 and 4 related to immediate recall of material in the field of the history of English literature; Experiment 5 was concerned with delayed recall in the same field. Experiments 6 and 7 related to immediate recall and Experiment 8 to delayed recall of science material.

It has been necessary to abbreviate the original data for presentation in Table I and in subsequent tables. As the limitations of space prevent the presentation of the mean score, in terms of total meaning

[1] A tryout of the questions with a non-experimental group, following the reading of an article, yielded possible responses, both correct and incorrect. From these student responses the final choices were made for experimental use.

values, for each group, together with the difference between the means and the probable error of the difference, a device has been adopted for the purpose of simplification. This device consists in showing only an index of the statistical significance of the superiority of the better procedure. The index of statistical significance is the quotient of the difference between the means for the two groups divided by the probable error of that difference. It is commonly

TABLE I

SUPERIORITY OF PROCEDURE A OVER PROCEDURE B IN IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED RECALL OF ALL MEANING VALUES WHEN MEASURED BOTH BY QUESTIONS USED BY GROUP A IN STUDY AND BY SUPPLEMENTARY QUESTIONS

EXPERIMENT	INDEX OF SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS	
	Immediate Recall	Delayed Recall
History of English literature:		
Experiment 3	3.2	.....
Experiment 4	5.3	.....
Experiment 5	.....	9.0
Science material:		
Experiment 6	2.1	.....
Experiment 7	1.5	.....
Experiment 8	.....	10.3

assumed that such a quotient must be 4.0 or greater (that is, any difference between means must be at least four times its probable error) before the difference may be considered statistically significant. When this assumption is applied to the data in Table I, it becomes clear that the superiority of Procedure A is statistically significant in the immediate recall of material relating to the history of English literature (Experiment 4). In the immediate recall of science material, it is equally clear that the superiority of Procedure A is apparent rather than real so far as the evidence of Experiments 6 and 7 is concerned. One of the most striking findings shown in Table I is the pronounced superiority of Procedure A in the delayed recall of material of both types.

Tables II and III present indices of the significance of superiority when recall was measured by the questions used by Group A in

study and when measured by the supplementary questions. From Table II it is seen that the use of questions for guidance in reading is definitely superior to undirected careful reading for immediate

TABLE II

SUPERIORITY OF PROCEDURE A OVER PROCEDURE B IN IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED RECALL WHEN MEASURED BY ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS STUDIED BY GROUP A

EXPERIMENT	INDEX OF SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS	
	Immediate Recall	Delayed Recall
History of English literature:		
Experiment 3	6.8	.....
Experiment 4	14.5	.....
Experiment 5	.....	12.8
Science material:		
Experiment 6	10.0	.....
Experiment 7	8.5	.....
Experiment 8	.....	11.2

TABLE III

MERITS OF THE TWO PROCEDURES IN IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED RECALL WHEN MEASURED BY ANSWERS TO SUPPLEMENTARY QUESTIONS

Experiment	Index of Significance of Superiority of Procedure B in Immediate Recall	Index of Significance of Superiority of Procedure A in Delayed Recall
History of English literature:		
Experiment 3	2.2	.....
Experiment 4	4.5	.....
Experiment 5	.....	0.5
Science material:		
Experiment 6	4.6	.....
Experiment 7	4.3	.....
Experiment 8	.....	1.1

recall or delayed recall of material of either type when only answers to those questions are considered. Table III shows that reading guided by questions (Procedure A) results in the acquisition of relatively fewer supplementary meaning values, when immediate recall of material of either type is measured, than does undirected careful

reading (Procedure B). When delayed recall of material of either type is considered, the unquestionably significant superiority of Procedure A in deriving meaning values as measured by the specific questions studied is seen to be accompanied by no loss of meaning values as measured by the supplementary questions.

TABLE IV

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEAN FOR ANSWERS TO STUDY QUESTIONS AND MEAN FOR ANSWERS TO SUPPLEMENTARY QUESTIONS

EXPERIMENT	QUESTIONS GIVING NUMERICALLY LARGER MEAN	INDEX OF SIGNIFICANCE OF SUPERIORITY IN IMMEDIATE RECALL	INDEX OF SIGNIFICANCE OF SUPERIORITY IN DELAYED RECALL
	History of English Literature		
Experiment 3:			
Group A	Study	11.8	.....
Group B	Study	3.0	.....
Experiment 4:			
Group A	Study	26.7	.....
Group B	Supplementary	1.3	.....
Experiment 5:			
Group A	Study	.....	17.5
Group B	Study	.....	5.1
	Science Material		
Experiment 6:			
Group A	Study	13.3	.....
Group B	Study	2.5	.....
Experiment 7:			
Group A	Study	12.3	.....
Group B	Supplementary	1.2	.....
Experiment 8:			
Group A	Study	.....	18.5
Group B	Study	.....	5.5

Table IV indicates the relation between the two types of meaning values from another point of view. Before this table is discussed, however, it should be said that in every case a conscious effort was made to include in the guiding questions used by Group A the more significant points of the article read by the students. This table shows the significance of the difference between the mean for the answers to study questions and the mean for answers to supplementary questions in the case of each group. The significance of the

difference is determined in this instance also by noting whether the difference between the two means for the group is four or more times the probable error of the difference. Table IV brings out three facts. First, in the immediate and delayed recall of materials of both types, Group A derives a significantly larger number of meaning values in terms of the questions studied than in terms of the supplementary questions. This fact is easily understood since the use of questions for guidance in study directs attention to their answers. Second, in the immediate recall of material of both types, Group B derives about as many meaning values in terms of the questions used by Group A in study as in terms of the supplementary questions. This fact seems to indicate that, in reading for the purpose of immediate recall, students who read carefully but without the guidance of questions read without discriminating between the more important and the less important points of a selection. Third, in the delayed recall of material of both types, Group B derives a significantly larger number of meaning values in terms of the questions used by Group A in study than in terms of the supplementary questions. This finding indicates that students who read carefully, without questions to guide them to the more important ideas of an article, nevertheless read discriminatingly when they possess an active determination to remember what is read for an extended period of time. Such students apparently focus their attention on the more important points of the material, and in all likelihood these points serve as centers about which supplementary meaning values group themselves. Questions provided for study are utilized in a like manner by students reading with those questions for guidance when they are reading for the purpose of delayed recall. When the student reads with an active determination to remember, reading guided by questions results in unquestionably superior retention; it is, therefore, the preferable procedure if retention is desired.

The correlations of the results of the experimental tests with each other were computed in order to determine whether one type of reading procedure might be said to constitute a training technique for the other. A second purpose in computing the correlations was to find out whether the relations between the two procedures varied when students read for the respective purposes of immediate recall

and delayed recall. The coefficients of correlation[1] together with their probable errors are presented in Table V. In interpreting the coefficients, the reader must observe extreme caution for the number of cases is small from a statistical point of view and the material of the experimental tests is comparatively unstandardized. However, when due regard is given to the limitations of the data, the table may be considered highly suggestive. In the experiments relating to immediate recall, it is to be noted that, when reading guided by questions (Procedure A) preceded undirected careful reading (Procedure B), the correlation for the same group of students is in

TABLE V

CORRELATIONS OF RESULTS OF TESTS IN EXPERIMENTS 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, AND 8 WITH ONE ANOTHER

Experiments Correlated	Correlation When Procedure A Preceded Procedure B	Correlation When Procedure B Preceded Procedure A
Immediate recall:		
Experiments 3 and 4.....	.59±.07	.22±.10
Experiments 6 and 7.....	.71±.05	.39±.09
Delayed recall:		
Experiments 5 and 8.....	.57±.07	.51±.08

both cases positive and significant and that it is higher than the correlation when undirected careful reading (Procedure B) preceded reading guided by questions (Procedure A). Moreover, the fact that there is an increase in the correlations in both cases from Experiments 3 and 4 to Experiments 6 and 7 gives evidence of practice effect in using the two procedures. When this increase is taken into consideration, the correlation between Procedure A and subsequent Procedure B still remains relatively larger than the correlation between Procedure B and subsequent Procedure A. It may, therefore, be suggested that reading guided by questions serves as a training technique for subsequent undirected careful reading.

The positive and significant correlations for the delayed-recall experiments (Experiments 5 and 8) are different from those for the immediate-recall experiments. In delayed recall reading guided by

[1] Karl J. Holzinger, *Statistical Methods for Students in Education*, p. 151. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1928.

questions (Procedure A) correlates with subsequent undirected careful reading (Procedure B) in about the same degree to which undirected careful reading (Procedure B) correlates with subsequent reading guided by questions (Procedure A). In other words, there is a marked resemblance between the two procedures regardless of which is practiced first. This resemblance has already been pointed out and discussed. It is interesting, however, to note the support given by the correlations for delayed recall to the hypothesis set forth earlier, namely, that the student, in carrying on either reading procedure for the purpose of delayed recall, consciously directs his attention to the more important points of the article. Since reading guided by questions is not only similar in nature but also superior in the meaning values retained to undirected careful reading, the former procedure is evidently to be preferred for delayed recall.

Summary of conclusions.—1. Reading guided by questions significantly surpasses careful reading and re-reading without questions in the immediate recall of the answers to the questions used in study. This finding applies equally to material relating to the history of English literature and to material relating to science. Therefore, students should be provided with questions for guidance in reading material of either type when immediate recall of specific information seems desirable.

2. Reading guided by questions significantly surpasses careful reading and re-reading without questions in the delayed recall of the answers to the questions used in study both in the case of material relating to the history of English literature and in the case of material relating to science. Therefore, students should be stimulated to an active determination to remember what they read and be provided with questions for guidance in reading when delayed recall of specific information seems desirable. These two steps should be taken in preparation for the reading of material relating to the history of English literature or for the reading of science material.

3. Reading guided by questions, when compared with careful reading and re-reading without questions, results in no loss in the delayed recall of answers to supplementary questions. This finding is equally true for both types of material used in the experiments. Therefore, students may be provided with questions to guide them

in careful reading for delayed recall without losing supplementary meaning values of a selection. This statement applies to material relating to the history of English literature and to science material.

4. Reading guided by questions significantly surpasses careful reading and re-reading without questions for immediate recall of the largest possible number of meaning values when the material read relates to the history of English literature. Therefore, students should be provided with questions to guide them in careful reading of material relating to the history of English literature when immediate recall of the largest number of meaning values is desired.

5. Reading guided by questions and careful reading and re-reading without questions are equally effective for immediate recall of the largest possible number of meaning values when the material read is in the field of science. Therefore, students may be directed to read and re-read carefully without the guidance of questions or to read with the guidance of questions when immediate recall of the largest possible number of meaning values from science material seems desirable.

6. Reading guided by questions significantly surpasses careful reading and re-reading without questions for delayed recall of the largest possible number of meaning values. This finding is equally true in the case of material relating to the history of English literature and in the case of material relating to science. Therefore, students should be stimulated to an active determination to remember what is read and should be provided with questions to guide them in careful reading when delayed recall of the largest possible number of meaning values seems desirable. These two steps are equally justifiable and important for material of both types.

It may be said that, in delayed recall of material of either type, reading guided by questions involves mental activity of the same types as does careful reading and re-reading without questions, though the first technique is far more effective. These different types of mental activity include the selection of the more important points of the article and the organization of supplementary meaning values about these centers. The probable explanation of the superiority of reading guided by questions is that such reading facilitates the organization of what is read by eliminating mental groping for the more important points of the article.

DIFFERENCES IN FRENCH AND AMERICAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

Usually the person who visits Europe and studies casually the systems of education in the European countries returns to the United States proclaiming the greatness of the European systems and seriously criticizing the American system. This attitude is perfectly natural unless one studies intensively the European systems and has a thorough knowledge of the American system. Contrasts between the American and European systems of education are quite evident even to one making a casual investigation. These contrasts become more and more outstanding, the deeper one inquires into the two systems. Many of the differences which appear to make the European systems better than the American system fail to hold their own upon careful investigation. For example, the testing or examination system in Europe is entirely on the subjective basis. Seldom is anything but the essay type of examination used. There is no need to discuss the shortcomings of examinations of this type; yet the usual student of European education returns to America much impressed by the examining system of European education. No one can appreciate the excellent points in both the American and European systems without first seeing one in contrast or comparison to the other.

The writer's opinion of the systems of French and American education is that there are features about both systems which need to be improved and that there are in either system features which, with certain modifications, could be adapted to the other without difficulty and make both systems much stronger.

It would be absurd for any student of American education to take the position that all the features of American education are poor when compared with French education or other European systems,

or vice versa. Certainly, the Europeans are very anxious to emulate many features of American education, and some features of the European systems should be considered very seriously by Americans. To substantiate this point, the writer will mention only one illustration of the emulation of American education by Europeans. In Germany the so-called *Aufbauschule* is nothing more than an adaptation of the American comprehensive high school to the German situation. While in Germany, the writer attended the opening of three of these schools. The leaders in German education expressed a desire that more and more schools of this type should be organized in Germany.

The purpose of this article is not to deal in generalities but (1) to point out some of the fundamental differences between French and American education, (2) to show why these differences exist, and (3) to indicate some of the advantages which might accrue to American education if we should adapt and adopt some of the European points of strength.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FRENCH AND AMERICAN EDUCATION

Any person who is well versed in the history, philosophy, administration, and principles of American education is struck with the differences between French and American education. These differences become more apparent the more intensively one studies any European system. The main differences between French and American education will be described briefly.

1. *Differences in historical backgrounds and settings.*—Just a word is necessary to point out the significant differences in the historical backgrounds and settings of American and French education. A clear picture of this difference can be secured from a hasty review of the history of France as compared with the history of the United States. France has a history which covers many centuries, while America has a history covering only 324 years. France has a history replete with wars, military campaigns, and revolutions, with kings, despots, and republics. A glance at the history of France since the accession of Henry IV of the House of Bourbon in 1589 shows clearly that revolution and change have been to the fore. From 1589 to the overthrow of Napoleon III on September 4, 1870, and the establish-

ment of the Third Republic, France passed from the First Republic to the First Empire, to the restoration of the House of Bourbon, to the House of Bourbon-Orleans, to the Second Republic, to the Second Empire, and to the establishment of the Third Republic. The Third Republic has now stood for sixty years, and France is enjoying a republican form of government.

The United States, on the other hand, from 1607 to 1789 has a brief history of settlement, colonization, and constitutional development; from 1789 to the present, a history that may be traced through the administrations of its various presidents. It is a democratic country presided over by a president and a congress. Because of the historical background of each country, it is natural that France should be conservative, more or less satisfied with the degree of development which has been reached, and that America should be like an enthusiastic and growing youth, anxious to try out and experiment with every new thing with which it comes into contact. The figure of old age versus youth, in the writer's opinion, gives a clear picture of French conservatism and American "progressivism." Many complimentary remarks could be made of certain types of conservatism, and much could be said critically of certain types of progressiveness. Suffice it to say that not all the conservatism in France is desirable and, certainly, that not all the so-called "progressive" steps in American education are desirable—at least they have not all been proved to be entirely desirable.

2. *Differences in philosophical points of view.*—Out of a history replete with kings, despots, and republics and out of a background full of wars, strifes, and revolutions naturally comes a philosophy which is cold and calculating. Out of such a situation comes an ideal which requires a certain form or type of education in order that it may be realized. When the words "France" and "French people" are heard, one immediately thinks of a logical mind, an eloquent tongue, and the social *salon*. One cannot think of France and its history without thinking of its tradition. The French tradition is that French schools shall strive to cultivate the ability to speak well and to write well and shall strive to develop an appreciation both for the language and for the literature of the country. French culture, furthermore, stands for logic in thought and expression of

principles and in command of details, for the ability to reflect and to reason. Lucien Poincaré expresses the French philosophy in the following words.

> The Republic demands that we prepare, not subjects habituated to passive obedience, but free citizens destined to live in an epoch of liberty; to form men of firm consciences, of invincible will, having sentiments of right and duty, who are capable of serving the democracy passionately, but who, in case of need, know how to oppose its unjust violence with calm and courage.[1]

In brief, the French philosophy of education is that the training of the intellect shall be supreme—that it is the mind which is to be developed rather than the physical being. This philosophy means that only the élite are qualified for leadership.

The American point of view is exactly contrary; Americans believe that all the children of all the people must be educated. The masses are to be given educational opportunities equal to those of the élite. Many attempts have been made to state the American philosophy, but the most concise and expressive statement is the following: "Education in a democracy, both within and without the school, should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society towards ever nobler ends."[2]

3. *Differences in organization and administration.*—French education is divided into three classes:[3] *l'enseignement primaire*, or primary education; *l'enseignement secondaire*, or secondary education; and *l'enseignement supérieur*, or higher education. Each of these units comprises a part of the whole scheme of education which the child follows from the time he enters school until he completes the university.

There is a central administration consisting of the minister of public instruction, five departments, and a number of bureaus under each department. The departments are: (1) the department of superior or higher education, (2) the department of secondary education, (3) the department of primary education, (4) the department

[1] Lucien Poincaré, *Éducation, science, patrie*, p. 246. Paris: Ernest Flammarion, 1926.

[2] *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 9. United States Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 35, 1918.

[3] C. Richard, *L'enseignement en France*. Paris: Librairie Armand Colin, 1925.

of beaux-arts, and (5) the department of finance and management. For local administration France is divided into seventeen circumscriptions called "academies," each of which has an academic council made up of members elected by the professors and teachers. The academic councils deal with all grades of instruction. Each academy is in charge of a *recteur*, and each is provided with a corps of inspectors, one for each political department, or state, except in the departments of Nord and Seine. Each political department has a council to deal with primary educational matters, the prefect being president, and this body has large powers with respect to the inspection, management, and maintenance of schools and the opening of free schools.

In the secondary-school field the *lycées* and the *collèges* are the two dominant institutions. These resemble each other to a great extent. The *lycée* is supported entirely by the state, while the *collège* is maintained by the state and the *commune* or *municipalité*. The *lycée* is considered superior to the *collège* in standards. Both institutions maintain boarding departments and day schools which care for pupils from eleven to eighteen years of age. The *lycée* is regarded as the acme of educational achievement in France and is, therefore, considered a school for the élite. In neither the *lycée* nor the *collège* is education free, this situation emphasizing the fact that only the moneyed class can afford education in a *lycée* or *collège*. Frequently the *lycées* maintain preparatory departments, *petits lycées*. This situation makes it possible for the better class of people to enter their sons in the *lycée* from the very beginning, the children thus spending ten or eleven years in the same school. Ordinarily the length of the course in the *lycée* is seven years. From this institution a student may enter the university direct or the normal school for secondary-school teachers.

Prior to attendance at a *lycée* the pupils secure their training in the primary school, *l'école primaire*, beginning at five years of age and ending at thirteen. At this point a public examination is held for all pupils. Those who are successful may continue their educations, the best candidates being selected to enter the *lycée* while the others may attend a non-compulsory intermediate school. There are two branches in this school: one lasting for three or more years, *écoles*

primaires supérieures, and another lasting for two years, *cours complémentaires*. Both of these branches tend to serve the needs of practical life and also to complete the primary education begun in the primary school. Seldom does a child shift from these schools to a *lycée* or any higher institution. However, France is seriously considering the plan of opening the state secondary schools to everyone. There is strong opposition to this step since it would nullify the very essence of French education—education for the élite.

The courses in the *lycées* and *collèges* are divided into two divisions: (1) a four-year lower course for pupils from eleven to fifteen years of age and (2) a three-year higher course for pupils from fifteen to eighteen years of age. These are known as the "first cycle" and the "second cycle." Since 1923 attempts have been made to reform the secondary-school course, but every French secondary-school pupil must still pursue a decidedly classical course for four years, between the ages of eleven and fifteen, regardless of his special interests, ability, or aptitude. At the conclusion of these four years a uniform examination in Latin and Greek is given, which is unique in the field of secondary education.

The second cycle, given pupils from the ages of fifteen to eighteen, has been somewhat modified during the past few years. Instead of the four sections that students could formerly pursue, there are now only two, one of which emphasizes Latin and Greek while the other emphasizes French and modern languages. The courses of the two cycles clearly show that France still desires to excel in the classics and to develop those qualities for which she has been noted—logical and rationalistic thinking and a precise, clear, and eloquent expression of thought.

In America, with its democratic philosophy, the organization of schools consists of the elementary, secondary, and higher schools—three types of institutions closely articulated and blending from one to the other. On the contrary, the scheme of primary and elementary education in France has no particular relation to the *lycées* and *collèges* which represent secondary education. On the other hand, the *lycées* and universities of France are much more closely articulated than are America's high schools and colleges or universities.

4. *Differences in curriculums.*—The curriculum in the French system of education is the key to the whole enterprise. The curriculum is organized by the central authorities with extreme care and deliberation. Options exist which permit emphasis on ancient or modern languages and on a classical or scientific training. However, once the choice is made, the curriculum is so fashioned that certain preconceived ends are the result. A mind thoroughly disciplined and sensitized to precise distinctions is the sole purpose and objective. This training is given the pupils by the same instructors over long periods of time, and the instructors are specialists in their respective fields.

In the American secondary school is found a program of studies intended to meet the needs, interests, and aptitudes of the individual pupil. Learned has called the American secondary-school curriculum a mere "rope of sand without texture or organization."[1] It must be recognized, however, that in a democracy such as America provision must be made for the individual pupil to pursue the best course possible in order to meet the needs both of himself and of society. The failure to produce favorable results is caused not by the American program and philosophy but by the manner in which the program and philosophy have been interpreted and administered.

The essence of the American secondary-school course is found in a core curriculum and a number of variables and free electives, through which the pupil passes under expert guidance and teaching. Under this plan the core curriculum is to be studied by all pupils, and the variables and free electives are to be selected according to the individual needs, tastes, and aptitudes of the pupils.

5. *Differences in aims and methods.*—A word or two is sufficient to point out the differences in the aims and methods of the French and American schools. The French believe in thorough training and mastery of subject matter. Regardless of the subject being taught, correct and precise French is required whether in oral or written form. In order to secure this exactness in language, the French require their teachers to be masters of the subjects they teach. The

[1] William S. Learned, *The Quality of the Educational Process in the United States and Europe*, p. 5. Bulletin Number Twenty. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1927.

firm belief of the French educators is that the teachers, being masters of subject matter, are capable of presenting the materials in the most effective way. They believe that subject matter and method are inseparable and that method is an inherent quality of the subject being taught.

An idea of the methods pursued by the French in teaching may be given by sketching some of the activities which were observed by the writer while visiting and studying French secondary schools. In language work *l'explication de textes* is considered necessary and fundamental. This process not only dissects and explains the particular section of the book being studied but, through careful study and analysis, aids the child in fixing the content in his mind or nervous system. Further explanation of this process would but review the textbook method of instruction so commonly found in every section. Another scheme used extensively by the French is the use of the notebook, or the *cahier*. Even in the very earliest years the child begins to keep notebooks which contain notes of actual class work and all kinds of related materials. These notebooks serve as a record of the pupil's work from class to class. Each pupil presents his notebook to the teacher from time to time for examination. He also shows the notebook to any new teachers assigned to teach him from class to class. The French also employ supervised study and the lecture method. Supervised study is required in every subject for an hour a day under the direct supervision of the teacher who teaches the subject. In addition to directing study in these periods, the teacher explains how to study and trains the pupils in the art of taking notes.

Space will not permit further discussion of French aims and methods. There are many points of similarity, however, in the French and American systems. In America the first aim is to train the child to meet life-situations now and those which are to come in his later life. It is believed that the child should be given first consideration and that subject matter and method are only means to an end. Like the French, Americans recognize that method is inherent in subject matter, but we also recognize that the child, the way in which he learns, and the materials to be taught, together, determine how a subject should be presented. To be sure, such methods as the

textbook method, the lecture method, and the question-and-answer drill are found in America, but the socialized recitation, the project, the unit plan, and the contract plan are also found. The chief difference in aims and methods in France and in America is that the emphasis is on subject matter in France while in America the emphasis is on the child.

6. *Differences in teachers and teacher-training.*—On paper and in print no country in the world can show a better and more highly selected group of teachers or scholars dedicated to teaching than France. The reason for France's apparent supremacy in the scholarliness of her teachers is understood only when one understands the French system of training teachers. The road to a teaching position or a teacher's certificate in France is arduous. The candidate, after completing the secondary school or the *lycée*, which corresponds to our Sophomore year of college, must continue his education for three or four years at the university or at *l'école normale supérieure*. At the conclusion of this period of training most of the teachers are selected on the basis of a searching examination conducted by the very ablest university professors. This examination, which is called the *agrégation*, is a competitive examination open to all Frenchmen desiring to teach in the higher schools of France. The examination is oral and written and calls for an absolute mastery of the particular subject in which the candidate is to be examined. The seriousness of the examination may be realized when it is stated that from 80 to 85 per cent of the candidates fail each year. From those who are successful are selected the teachers for the higher schools. Selection is made according to the rank order of the candidates. The title conferred upon the successful candidates is *agrégé de l'université*. The most interesting phase of the whole process from the American point of view is the fact that, after once receiving the title and being appointed to their positions, the teachers hold these positions as long as they desire, and a pension is assured them at the time of retirement.

The differences between French and American teachers and teacher-training are, therefore, obvious. True it is that American schools may have teachers who are just as capable and intelligent as are the French teachers, but the fact remains that the schools

in this country are not yet demanding as much training for prospective teachers and neither are they selecting teachers in a manner which guarantees the very best for the profession. In fact, it can be questioned seriously whether teaching in America is really a profession as yet.

7. *Differences in achievements.*—It should be recognized at the outset that to point out actual differences in the achievements of the French and American secondary schools without the use of some sort of testing program under controlled and comparable conditions is impossible. However, the means of determining achievement both in France and in America is the examination, and the differences in the examining process may be pointed out.

In France a student in the *lycée* begins with the sixth class and works until he completes the fifth, fourth, third, second, and finally the first class. When the first class is completed, he takes the first part of the examination for the baccalaureate. The first part of the examination compares somewhat with the examination of the College Entrance Examination Board in this country although some parts of the examination are more advanced than that in America. In mathematics particularly the examination covers more advanced work. The second part of the examination is even more advanced and detailed than the first. It should be noted that the French examinations do not emphasize mere manipulation or reproduction of facts but rather call for thorough discussions of the solutions of certain practical problems.

It occurs to the writer that the proper theory of examining or measuring achievement would be a combination of the French and American plans. Such a plan would provide that all periodical and monthly examinations should measure the extent to which the pupil is mastering the facts, principles, and ideas of a given subject, while the final examination should be entirely comprehensive, or a measure of the pupil's ability to apply the facts, principles, and ideas learned.

REASONS FOR EXISTING DIFFERENCES

To anyone having read the series of differences which have been pointed out in this article, the reasons for the existence of the differences are obvious. The first reason is found in the history and back-

ground of France. Any country with a history and a background like those of France would tend to develop schools of the type found there. The second reason is found in the French tradition, which grows out of its historical setting. Secondary education has always been for the élite and the nobility. French educational tradition is based on a study of the classics by the élite and upper classes. In spite of the efforts of some of the modernists to make secondary education free and open to all, it still remains as an opportunity for the chosen few and the moneyed class. Still another reason is that the French have a different philosophical and psychological point of view. In fact, the educational philosophy of any country is reflected in the type of school it provides. Accordingly, the fundamental reason for the differences in French and American education is found in the differences in the philosophies and psychology of the two countries.

SOME ADVANTAGES TO AMERICAN EDUCATION FROM A STUDY OF FRENCH EDUCATION

Although space will not permit a full discussion of the advantages to be secured for American education from a study of French education, this article would not be complete without some consideration of this item. It seems fair to say that America could improve its educational program by adapting certain of the fundamental ideas of French education. These adaptations should develop: (1) a closer articulation of the several units of the educational system, (2) the organization of the teachers and professors into an academic administrative group such as France possesses, (3) a higher standard of preparation for teachers and a longer tenure, and (4) an improved examining process. France could likewise profit by studying American education and adapting some of its salient points of quality in the French program of education.

SOME PHASES OF THE STATUS OF HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN TEXAS

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The office of principal in Texas high schools does not permit clarity of definition. The duties of the principals in high schools located in villages and small communities bear little semblance to those of high-school principals in the city school systems of the state. A study of class schedules reveals that principals in small high schools usually have heavy teaching loads. In fact, the teaching schedules of principals in many of the smallest systems exceed those of the regular teaching staff. On the other hand, the tendency among the larger systems of the state is to relieve principals from teaching in order that they may give undivided attention to supervisory and administrative duties.

The rapid growth of erstwhile sparsely populated sections of the state has resulted in the establishment of numerous small secondary schools. Many small schools of a decade ago have become progressive city schools, well organized and adequately administered. Statistics compiled from the reports of the State Department of Education reveal that there are upwards of six hundred four-year high schools in the state of Texas. These high schools range in size from two-teacher schools to institutions employing more than one hundred teachers. This study throws light on certain phases of the status of principals in these high schools.

For analysis of the available data the high schools of the state were separated into the following groups: Group I, schools with two to four teachers; Group II, schools with five to nine teachers; Group III, schools with ten or more teachers; Group IV, schools in seven of the largest cities in the state, namely, Austin, Beaumont, Dallas, El Paso, Fort Worth, Houston, and San Antonio.

College training of high-school principals.—In Table I are presented data concerning the college training of 608 high-school principals.

The table shows that one-half of the total number of principals in the high schools in Group I have not completed the required work for the Bachelor's degree. It reveals further that nearly one-third of the principals in the high schools in Group II have not received the Bachelor's degree. Two principals in Group I possess the Master's degree, while five in Group II are holders of the advanced degree. A further analysis of the table shows that in the larger school systems of the state the factor of college training is improved. In the high schools in Group III only 17 principals of a total of 158 have failed to qualify for the Bachelor's degree, while 35, or 22.2 per cent, possess the Master's degree. Thirteen, or 59.1 per cent, of the principals in the high schools in Group IV have received the Master's degree, and the Bachelor's degree is held by 36.4 per cent. One principal in this group possesses neither degree although the records show that this administrator has attended college for four years.

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS IN FOUR GROUPS OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN TEXAS ACCORDING TO DEGREES HELD IN 1929–30

GROUP	TOTAL NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS	PRINCIPALS HOLDING BACHELOR'S DEGREE		PRINCIPALS HOLDING MASTER'S DEGREE		PRINCIPALS HOLDING NO DEGREE	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
I	147	70	47.6	2	1.4	75	51.0
II	281	187	66.6	5	1.8	89	31.7
III	158	106	67.1	35	22.2	17	10.8
IV	22	8	36.4	13	59.1	1	4.5
Total	608	371	61.0	55	9.0	182	29.9

Opportunities for women in high-school principalships.—Table II clearly reveals that the profession of high-school principal is largely reserved for men. Of a total of 608 principals, only 65, or 10.7 per cent, are women. The high schools in Group I offer the largest opportunity to women, 25.7 per cent of those high schools having women principals. The larger systems of the state have little inducement to offer women administrators. Only eight high schools in Group III employ women in the position of principal, while the high schools in Group IV employ men altogether.

Salaries of high-school principals.—Great diversity in practice is

represented in the salaries paid to high-school principals in Texas. Table III shows the salaries paid principals in the high schools in Texas. The range in salaries paid principals in the small school systems is from $900 to $2,600. The median salary in Groups I and II is $1,345. Some 211 principals in these two groups receive salaries below the median. The range of salaries paid principals in schools in Group II is considerably wider than the range of salaries paid principals in schools in Group I. The highest salary paid to an administrator in Group I is $1,900, while one principal in a school in Group II receives $2,600. The median salary paid principals in schools in

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS IN FOUR GROUPS OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN TEXAS ACCORDING TO SEX

Group	Number of Men	Number of Women
I	113	29
II	256	28
III	152	8
IV	22	0
Total	543	65

Group I is $1,200 as compared with a median of $1,453 for principals in schools in Group II. The lowest salary paid to a principal in the high schools in Group III is above the median salary paid to the principals in schools in Group I. The range of salaries paid principals in schools in Group III is from $1,300 to $4,800. The median salary in this group is $2,256, seventy-six principals receiving salaries above the median. The range of salaries paid principals in schools in Group IV is from $3,000 to $5,500 with a median salary of $4,275. The median salary for Groups III and IV combined is $2,400.

Professional training of high-school principals.—An important measure of the preparation of the principal for the duties involved in the administration of secondary schools is the amount of professional training received in undergraduate and graduate schools. Table IV presents data which throw light on the professional training of principals in the high schools in the different groups. In this table are represented only those principals who have completed their under-

TABLE III

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS IN FOUR GROUPS OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN TEXAS ACCORDING TO SALARIES RECEIVED IN 1929–30

SALARY	NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS				TOTAL IN GROUPS I AND II		TOTAL IN GROUPS III AND IV	
	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
$ 900–999 ...	22	8	0	0	30	7.1	0	0.0
1,000–1,099...	9	7	0	0	16	3.8	0	0.0
1,100–1,199...	40	33	0	0	73	17.3	0	0.0
1,200–1,299...	24	32	0	0	56	13.2	0	0.0
1,300–1,399...	30	52	1	0	82	19.4	1	0.6
1,400–1,499...	8	16	3	0	24	5.7	3	1.7
1,500–1,599...	5	50	11	0	55	13.0	11	6.3
1,600–1,699...	1	16	3	0	17	4.0	3	1.7
1,700–1,799...	0	8	6	0	8	1.9	6	3.4
1,800–1,899...	2	30	15	0	32	7.6	15	8.5
1,900–1,999...	1	1	7	0	2	0.5	7	4.0
2,000–2,099...	0	10	18	0	10	2.4	18	10.2
2,100–2,199...	0	1	4	0	1	0.2	4	2.3
2,200–2,299...	0	6	17	0	6	1.4	17	9.7
2,300–2,399...	0	0	3	0	0	0.0	3	1.7
2,400–2,499...	0	8	13	0	8	1.9	13	7.4
2,500–2,599...	0	2	9	0	2	0.5	9	5.1
2,600–2,699...	0	1	5	0	1	0.2	5	2.8
2,700–2,799...	0	0	11	0	0	0.0	11	6.3
2,800–2,899...	0	0	4	0	0	0.0	4	2.3
2,900–2,999...	0	0	2	0	0	0.0	2	1.1
3,000–3,099...	0	0	8	1	0	0.0	9	5.1
3,100–3,199...	0	0	2	2	0	0.0	4	2.3
3,200–3,299...	0	0	2	1	0	0.0	3	1.7
3,300–3,399...	0	0	3	0	0	0.0	3	1.7
3,400–3,499...	0	0	3	0	0	0.0	3	1.7
3,500–3,599...	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0
3,600–3,699...	0	0	2	0	0	0.0	2	1.1
3,700–3,799...	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0
3,800–3,899...	0	0	0	1	0	0.0	1	0.6
3,900–3,999...	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0
4,000–4,099...	0	0	1	4	0	0.0	5	2.8
4,100–4,199...	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0
4,200–4,299...	0	0	1	2	0	0.0	3	1.7
4,300–4,399...	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0
4,400–4,499...	0	0	0	4	0	0.0	4	2.3
4,500–4,599...	0	0	0	1	0	0.0	1	0.6
4,600–4,699...	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0
4,700–4,799...	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0
4,800–4,899...	0	0	1	3	0	0.0	4	2.3
4,900–4,999...	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0
5,000–5,099...	0	0	0	1	0	0.0	1	0.6
5,100–5,199...	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0
5,200–5,299...	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0
5,300–5,399...	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0
5,400–5,499...	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0
5,500–5,599...	0	0	0	1	0	0.0	1	0.6
Total.....	142	281	155	21	423	100.1	176	100.2
Median.....	$1,200	$1,453	$2,256	$4,275	$1,345	.....	$2,400	.....

graduate work, that is, those who hold at least a Bachelor's degree. This table shows that only slightly more than one-third of the principals holding degrees have done major or minor work in the field of education either as undergraduates or as graduates. In the schools in Group II, the group with the largest number of high schools, is found the lowest percentage of principals who have done major or minor work in education.

Summary.—This investigation, treating certain phases of the status of high-school principals in Texas, reveals the following facts.

1. Principals in the larger high schools in the state are generally college graduates. More than one-fourth have the Master's degree.

TABLE IV

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF PRINCIPALS IN FOUR GROUPS OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN TEXAS WHO IN 1929–30 HELD COLLEGE DEGREES

Group	Number of Principals with Majors in Education	Number of Principals with Minors in Education	Percentage of Principals with Major or Minor Training in Education
I	6	19	34.7
II	24	33	29.7
III	28	44	51.1
IV	8	5	61.9
Total	66	101	39.2

Only seven principals in the smaller high schools have the Master's degree, and slightly more than one-third do not possess the Bachelor's degree.

2. Comparatively few women are employed as principals. A total of sixty-five women hold such positions, and all except eight of these are to be found in the smaller school systems in the state.

3. The range of salaries for principals in the larger systems in the state is from $1,300 to $5,500, with a median of $2,400. Salaries in the small schools range from $900 to $2,600, with a median salary of $1,345.

4. One-half of the principals in the larger schools who have Bachelor's and Master's degrees have had major or minor training in the field of education. In the small school systems less than one-third of the principals holding degrees did their major or minor work in education.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

The general course in school administration.—The trend of practice in professional education is to introduce the student to important fields of study through broad, general courses. In the field of public-school administration the practice has been rendered difficult on account of the lack of well-organized textbook material. The need is now met in a very satisfactory manner by a recent volume[1] which treats comprehensively the entire field of public-school organization and administration.

The volume contains twenty-two chapters. Each chapter treats an important phase of public-school organization or administration and gives a list of topics and problems for use as study or teaching exercises, a selected bibliography, and a selected list of public-school surveys and other available sources of factual data. Space will not permit a recapitulation of the topics considered in the book. It is sufficient to state that the author's choice of topics has been carefully and critically made and that a well-balanced treatment is usually given. Another writer of equal ability and skill might have varied the organization of the topics and the emphasis given to individual topics, but, in view of the purpose of the book, it is doubtful whether any general improvement would have resulted.

In the treatment in the chapters the author has wisely avoided the discussion of administrative techniques, centering his attention chiefly on principles of organization or administration and their application. In contrast with some of the previous textbooks in the field the treatment is relatively free from administrative dogma. Facts are concisely stated and are critically analyzed and interpreted. For factual data the author has drawn extensively on the numerous public-school surveys, research investigations of graduate students in administration, and reports of state and federal agencies of administration.

The scope of the volume is adequate for the introductory course in public-school administration or for the lay reader who is interested in securing a broad perspective of the field of public-school organization and administration. The method of treatment employed by the author is likewise admirably adapted for either of the foregoing types of readers. The genetic approach is used as a means of acquainting the reader with the present status of units of organization and functions of administration, and statistical data are presented to reveal the size

[1] Fred Engelhardt, *Public School Organization and Administration.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1931. Pp. xvi+596. $3.00.

and importance of the problems or issues treated. Emphasis is invariably placed on the developments of recent years that have influenced and modified public-school organization and administration. Generalizations are drawn when the available evidence in terms of obtaining conditions warrants conclusions.

As general textbook material for the introductory course in public-school administration or for the general reading of lay students of administration, Professor Engelhardt's volume meets a long-recognized need. The utility of the contribution for the advanced student has been increased by the publication of a separate syllabus,[1] which provides topical outlines and comprehensive lists of reference material for study and teaching.

W. C. REAVIS

Lectures on secondary education in Europe.—A recent monograph[2] comprises a series of lectures on European secondary schools delivered at the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, in 1929, by the former headmaster of St. George's School, Newport, Rhode Island. The author attempts to present the salient characteristics of the various types of secondary schools in Germany, France, England, and Denmark, placing special stress on the significant contrasts between the traditional school and the school of the new education. Some attempt is made here and there to evaluate American secondary education in the light of current European practice. The final chapter is devoted specifically to this task.

The discussion of German secondary education is based entirely on Prussian practice. A very clear picture of recent changes and current practices and tendencies in Prussian secondary education is given, but the reader should be warned that this is not the entire picture. The German Republic, like the United States, has no central education authority concerned with the standardization of practice. Although Prussia frequently leads the way in educational practice, there is no ground for assuming that the other German states will follow the lead. Bavaria, for example, should be studied as an example of a more conservative practice and as a leader among the south German states. A true portrayal of German secondary education will require a more comprehensive treatment of the varying practices throughout the several states of the German Republic.

The essential characteristics of the French system of secondary education are clearly presented. Cabot calls attention to a radical difference in procedure in France and Germany in providing for general cultural education. Germany sets up several different schools, each with its specific cultural objectives and core subjects, and thereby preserves the unity of cultural training while recognizing differences in fundamental abilities and cultural interests. France ignores to a

[1] Fred Engelhardt, *Public School Organization and Administration Syllabus*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1930. Pp. viii+176. $1.48.

[2] Stephen P. Cabot, *Secondary Education in Germany, France, England and Denmark*. Harvard Bulletins in Education, Number 15. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1930. Pp. xii+110. $1.00.

considerable degree the existence of differences in abilities and cultural interests until the last year, assuming that all secondary-school pupils are capable of meeting a minimum standard in languages, science, mathematics, and the other required subjects of the curriculum. The author's discussion of method in the French *lycée* deserves special commendation because of the manner in which the details of method in the various subjects have been analyzed. His explanation of the method of *explication de textes* is especially good. Attention is called to the fundamental difference in the post-war reforms in secondary education in France and Germany, the reforms in France stressing the revival of the formal classical education and the reforms in Germany stressing the modern socializing factors in German life and customs.

The author ascribes the difficulty of presenting an accurate picture of English secondary education to the lack of a standardizing central agency. Obviously, he underestimates the influence of the universities, the secondary-school examinations, and the English Board of Education with its frequent inspections for determining the schools on the Efficient List and the Grant List. Perhaps he was struck by the differences caused by varying types of organization. Is it true that there is no uniformity of practice in the "public schools"? There may be different names for the divisions of the schools or forms; in fact, the lingo at Winchester may not be understood at Eton and in numberless ways Winchester may be Winchester and Eton may be Eton, but both are fundamentally, essentially, and forever English "public schools." Not only is this true of the "great public schools," but in the important and essential features of secondary education the municipal and county secondary schools follow the "public-school" pattern. Perhaps some important differences are to be found in the municipal and county secondary schools. These differences are due in some measure to differing social and economic factors. London County Council has developed an administrative practice quite different from that generally found in the north of England. Even so, the fundamental differences in municipal and county secondary schools are certainly in no way comparable to the differences in public high schools of any one of the forty-eight states of the United States.

"Ancient Schools with Modern Methods" is the title of a chapter that deserves special commendation. The author has hit upon some of the more important innovations practiced at Oundel and at Perse School. No doubt he could mention other old schools that deserve to be placed among the innovators although they have been given little publicity for their particular hobbies. Because of the encouragement given to private initiative in English education, there has been much activity in the development of schools of the new education.

The folk high school of Denmark is charmingly presented. This institution is perhaps Denmark's great contribution to modern educational practice. It is unfortunate, however, that nothing is said concerning the secondary schools of Denmark. The folk high school is not a secondary school but rather a school for adult education—an extension of mass education upward beyond the adolescent period.

In a concluding chapter the lesson to be learned from European secondary education is characterized as "The Problem of Scholarship." Cabot says: "The problem over there is to increase the opportunities for higher education without sacrificing the quality of scholarship. Our problem is to build on our system of free-education-for-all a higher standard of scholarship for those who are best fitted to profit by it" (p. 104).

The author has succeeded admirably in setting forth the significant characteristics of secondary education in England, France, and Germany (in so far as Prussia is typical). The chapters relating to Denmark deal entirely with the folk high school, which is not a secondary school but rather a school for adult education. The programs of studies, or time tables, in the Appendix might well include examples from English and Danish schools for comparison with those of the Prussian and French schools. The bulletin is a valuable addition to the excellent series of Harvard Bulletins in Education and to our literature on foreign secondary education.

E. D. GRIZZELL

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

An objective comparison of private and public secondary education.—As the author of a recently published comparative study of public and private secondary education,[1] Leonard V. Koos appears in a familiar rôle—that of the pioneer investigator marking a path through a relatively unblazed territory. Up to the present time the attempts to compare public and private schools have been fragmentary, subjective, or partisan. None of these terms applies to this study; rather it employs the techniques of scientific educational inquiry in the most ambitious attempt which has yet been made to compare public and private high schools with regard to a series of vital features.

The main purpose of the monograph, as stated by the author, is "to report an investigation aiming at a better understanding of both private and public secondary education than has heretofore been possible" (p. 217). It makes good on this assignment. Not only does the study present a body of carefully organized and conservatively appraised data leading to a better understanding of public and private secondary schools, but it illustrates methods of investigation which will doubtless be used in the future in further exploration of this field.

The data presented were gathered over a period of four school years, 1925–26 to 1928–29, with the aid of subventions from the University of Minnesota. The information deals almost wholly with secondary schools located in that state. The significance of the study for wider areas, therefore, rests on the representativeness of the situation in Minnesota. The investigator presents considerable evidence on this point and concludes that "with only occasional exceptions .... the situation with respect to private and public secondary education in Minnesota is an epitome of the situation in the United States" (p. 9). Various degrees of dissent from this conclusion will probably be made, but the unbiased

[1] Leonard V. Koos, *Private and Public Secondary Education:* A Comparative Study. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. Pp. viii+228. $2.50.

critic will readily agree that the findings warrant certain inferences for areas considerably more extensive than that of the single state.

The investigation compares representative public high schools in Minnesota with fifty-three accredited private secondary schools in the same state. The latter group is the less homogeneous of the two groups. It is composed of three types of private schools distinguished throughout the study: the Roman Catholic denominational schools; the Scandinavian schools, mainly with Lutheran affiliations; and the "independent" group, in which the emphasis is on the college-preparatory function rather than on sectarianism.

The study first considers the private schools and asks, "Who Attends and Why?" A series of answers to these questions, too diverse to be summarized here, are obtained for each of the three types of private schools. Next, a comparison of the public and private schools is made on the basis of the achievement of students as measured by standardized tests. Typically, the public secondary schools are found to compare favorably, although not decisively so, with all groups except the independent private schools. The latter are definitely superior in test results to all other groups, both public and private. This superiority of the independent schools, however, may be wholly accounted for by the superior native intelligence of their students. Third, private-school and public-school graduates are compared as to success in the University of Minnesota. The measures of scholarship for students from public high schools are consistently superior to those for students from the private-school groups in spite of the superiority of the latter on tests of aptitude. Fourth, the curriculums of the two groups are studied, and the conclusion is drawn that "the offerings in private schools as a group are unquestionably more traditional and conservative than are those of public schools" (p. 204). Finally, the experience and training of the teachers in schools of the two groups are compared. The results are diverse and warrant no general conclusion as to uniform superiority of the teachers in any of the main groups of schools.

Those who followed the controversy as to public versus private education which arose from a minor phase of the last Inglis lecture (Thomas H. Briggs, *The Great Investment: Secondary Education in a Democracy*) will find particular interest in the material in the closing pages of the book under review. Following the presentation of representative statements on the subject, five services are identified as constituting the function of private education. These services are put to the test of the evidence of the investigation reported in the several chapters. Two of the resulting conclusions are quoted. "The case that can be made for the college-preparatory service of the private secondary school from evidence at hand is at best only a doubtful one. . . . . the evidence at hand . . . . gives little indorsement to the claim that private schools serve more often than public schools as centers of innovation and experimentation" (pp. 213–14).

The foregoing paragraphs, at best, present but a fragmentary review of the study. They are particularly inadequate in indicating the conservative and impartial interpretation made of the data. The author repeatedly points out the

limitations of his evidence and frequently warns against the drawing of sweeping conclusions. He emphasizes that there is wide variation from school to school within each of the groups of schools and much overlapping of performances. He admonishes against ascribing to individual schools of a group the record made by the group as a whole. These and other frequent warnings reflect the conservative attitude of the writer toward his evidence.

The fact that this review has been mainly concerned with a summary of principal findings should not mislead one as to the contribution of Koos's study. It is primarily a scientific investigation in a field which thus far has been mainly dealt with on a subjective plane. As such it constitutes a milestone from which further objective inquiry in this field will take its departure.

JOHN K. NORTON

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Objectivity in guidance.—Much of the literature and much of the practice in the field of guidance has been intuitional and optative in nature. Efforts of the sort which T. L. Kelley made in his monograph *Educational Guidance* (1914) were, at least at that period, the exception rather than the rule. Symonds' present contribution[1] represents a real addition to the increasing effort at objectivity in a field in which objectivity is comparatively difficult.

The study was undertaken to test the hypothesis that "guidance concerning a choice between two alternatives cannot be decided by a single test" (p. 3). Three major problems were under consideration: (1) the predictive value of tests and questionnaires for the determination of the curriculum which a boy will choose, (2) the value of tests and questionnaires in predicting success in a chosen curriculum, and (3) the value of comparison of scores in predicting the success of a pupil in one curriculum rather than in another.

The findings were briefly as follows: (1) All the tests used showed poor predictive value in determining the curriculum which a boy will choose. Interest questionnaires predict such choices with accuracy. (2) The correlations of the results of tests and questionnaires with marks as measures of success were all low. The author finds a correct explanation of this result in the unreliability of marks. There is some indication that achievement and interest are more closely related when the pupil is following the curriculum of his choice. (3) The author states that with regard to the third question the study yielded nothing of value. The differentiating value of particular tests for predicting adjustment to a particular curriculum is not present.

The low correlations between tests and interest blanks indicate that the gifted are not necessarily academically interested. The converse is also true. This fact raises another large problem which the study does not completely solve, namely, the technique to be employed in redirecting choices. This prob-

[1] Percival M. Symonds, *Tests and Interest Questionnaires in the Guidance of High School Boys.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. Pp. viii+62.

lem is important because of the indication that success is more likely to follow when a pupil is following the curriculum of his choice.

The general recommendations of the study are: First, determine interests by a questionnaire which samples widely. Second, predict success by tests of ability, intelligence tests for general prediction, and prognostic tests for prediction in special subjects.

The volume manifests the author's usual thoroughness of technique and care in drawing conclusions. Its value lies in establishing definitely some of our beliefs. There is much still to be done on the technique of guidance proper, especially in those cases where interest is running strongly counter to ability and chance of economic return. A further study by Professor Symonds would be welcome.

FRANCIS F. POWERS

UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON

A manual on pupil participation in school control.—A modest volume,[1] dealing with the theory and practice of pupil participation in school control, is addressed to high-school administrators and to sponsors of pupils' organizations who are planning to inaugurate pupil participation or who are seeking aid in promoting the activities of organizations already initiated. The material for the volume was obtained from the experience of the authors, from the theory and philosophy gleaned from a study of the literature on the subject, and from two questionnaire studies made by the authors. The content is presented in five chapters discussing the philosophy underlying pupil participation, suggestions for its inauguration, current practices, values and problems, and suggestions for sponsors. An appendix contains pertinent suggestions of forms to be used in the nomination and election of pupils to school offices. An additional chapter presents an admirable outline of parliamentary procedure.

For the group to whom it is addressed this volume should be of value. It points out clearly some major difficulties in the inauguration of a program of pupil participation and problems in the development and administration of such a program, and it offers concrete suggestions for meeting the difficulties. The chapters dealing with current practices and the chapters offering suggestions to sponsors of pupils' organizations are particularly pertinent. The volume is not, however, a contribution to the body of knowledge in the field it covers. Many of the tables presented have previously been published in identical or similar form in the Twenty-fifth Yearbook of the Society for the Study of Education, Part II, chapter ix. It is unfortunate also that the value of the book is injured somewhat by a fault, presumably in the proofreading, which causes differences in factual statements, such as appear on pages 52 and 53 with regard to the percentages favoring faculty control. The inclusion of a brief annotated bibliog-

[1] Jerry J. Vineyard and Charles F. Poole, *Student Participation in School Government*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1930. Pp. xiv+104. $1.00.

raphy is a commendable feature although the authors can be criticized for failure to include some valuable literature.

CHARLES W. BOARDMAN

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A textbook in the theory of music.—According to a statement by the authors, a new book[1] is intended for an elementary study of music theory in conservatories, colleges, and private and public high schools. The material is classified into three types, one section of the book being given to each type. Part I deals with music notation, time values of measures and rhythmic beats, sharps and flats, scales, and intervals. Part II gives a short discussion of instruments of the symphony orchestra and band. Part III provides definitions of musical terms.

Theory, without doubt, is one of the "gateways to music." However, it is the gate which is frequently avoided and the one which is likely to discourage young persons from further investigation and study. One wonders why this subject is usually presented as a cold statement of facts. Would it not be possible to portray it in a more vital and effective manner? The authors have given a hint of one method by which this result might be accomplished. In an inconspicuous note they state that the genuine *appoggiatura* is seldom found in compositions after Mozart. This is an interesting statement and serves to arouse the intellectual curiosity of the reader. Desire for further knowledge on the subject, however, is not satisfied since reasons for its disuse are not given. Notwithstanding this omission, the historical data so aptly given add zest and interest to a stereotyped definition. It is regretted that more of this type of information is not included with the many technical features of the book.

The publication has evidently been prepared with careful thought as to its practicability. The style is, for the most part, concise, but simplification of many of the terms would have added greatly to the value of the book, especially for high-school use. Although brief in its treatment, the book covers the fundamental theoretical material necessary for an introduction to the subject. Suggestive exercises for the student, a comparative table of typical instrumentation at different periods of musical history, good illustrations, a pronouncing vocabulary, and an index are phases deserving commendation. As a compilation of theoretical facts it should prove useful to teachers and students of music.

ANNE E. PIERCE

UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

A recent investigation of method in teaching general science.—Although a comparatively recent addition to the science curriculum in the secondary school, general science, when considered from the point of view of the number of pupils enrolled, the number of teachers directly concerned, and the interest taken in

[1] Wilton W. Blancké and Jay Speck, *A Gateway to Music.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1931. Pp. iv+178. $1.48.

the course by curriculum experts, is already the most important course in the science program. Various methods have been employed in the teaching of general science, and several investigations of the relative merits of different teaching practices have been made. As yet, there has been no solution sufficiently convincing to bring about uniform practice in the field. Determination of the relative merits of a few of the more general practices is timely and is an exceedingly helpful step in the process of refining our method. Such a scientific study has recently been made, and the findings, as well as the technique employed, have been admirably set forth in a recently published monograph.[1]

In this investigation the author makes a comparative study of three methods of teaching general science, namely, the textbook, lecture, and telling-demonstration methods. This problem was attacked with reference to three aims: (1) by contrasting progress made by pupils in three fields of science, (2) by determining the effectiveness of the three methods in each of three fields of science content, and (3) by ascertaining the progress made in each method by groups of different achievement levels in terms of both immediate and delayed recall.

Twenty-two classes in general science averaging thirty pupils each in six secondary schools were used in the experimental study. The investigation covered a period of nine weeks of actual teaching.

A considerable amount of raw data was collected and subjected to a most rigorous statistical interpretation. A unique feature of the study was the adoption of a "progress score" for use in determining the differences in achievement by the different methods. This measure was the difference between the score on an initial exploratory test and the score on a final test covering the same material. Extreme care was taken to consider in mean scores only differences which were statistically significant, the probable error having been taken into consideration in all cases. Reliability of all objective tests was established by employing experts in the science fields involved. In view of the elaborateness of the statistical procedure in handling the data and the fact that only standard devices were used, the conclusions are worthy of consideration.

After citing twenty-one points summarizing similar studies in this field and the salient features of the study undertaken, the author states nineteen separate conclusions, some of the most significant of which follow.

1. On the basis of final scores, preference is shown for the demonstration method in physics and zoölogy content and for the lecture method in botany content.

2. On the basis of the progress scores, the demonstration method ranks first; lecture-method, second; and book method, last.

3. The upper quartile gives preference to the demonstration method in both final and progress scores, the other two methods tying for second choice.

FRED G. ANIBAL

[1] William J. Klopp, *The Relative Merits of Three Methods of Teaching General Science in the High School*. Chicago: Central Association of the Science and Mathematics Teachers, Inc. (7633 Calumet Avenue), 1930. Pp. x+82.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

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Annual Report of the General Education Board, 1929–1930. New York: General Education Board (61 Broadway), 1931. Pp. xvi+76.

BAGLEY, WILLIAM C. *Education, Crime, and Social Progress.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1931. Pp. xvi+150. $1.20.

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